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Columbus and Columbia

A Pictorial History of the Man
and the Nation

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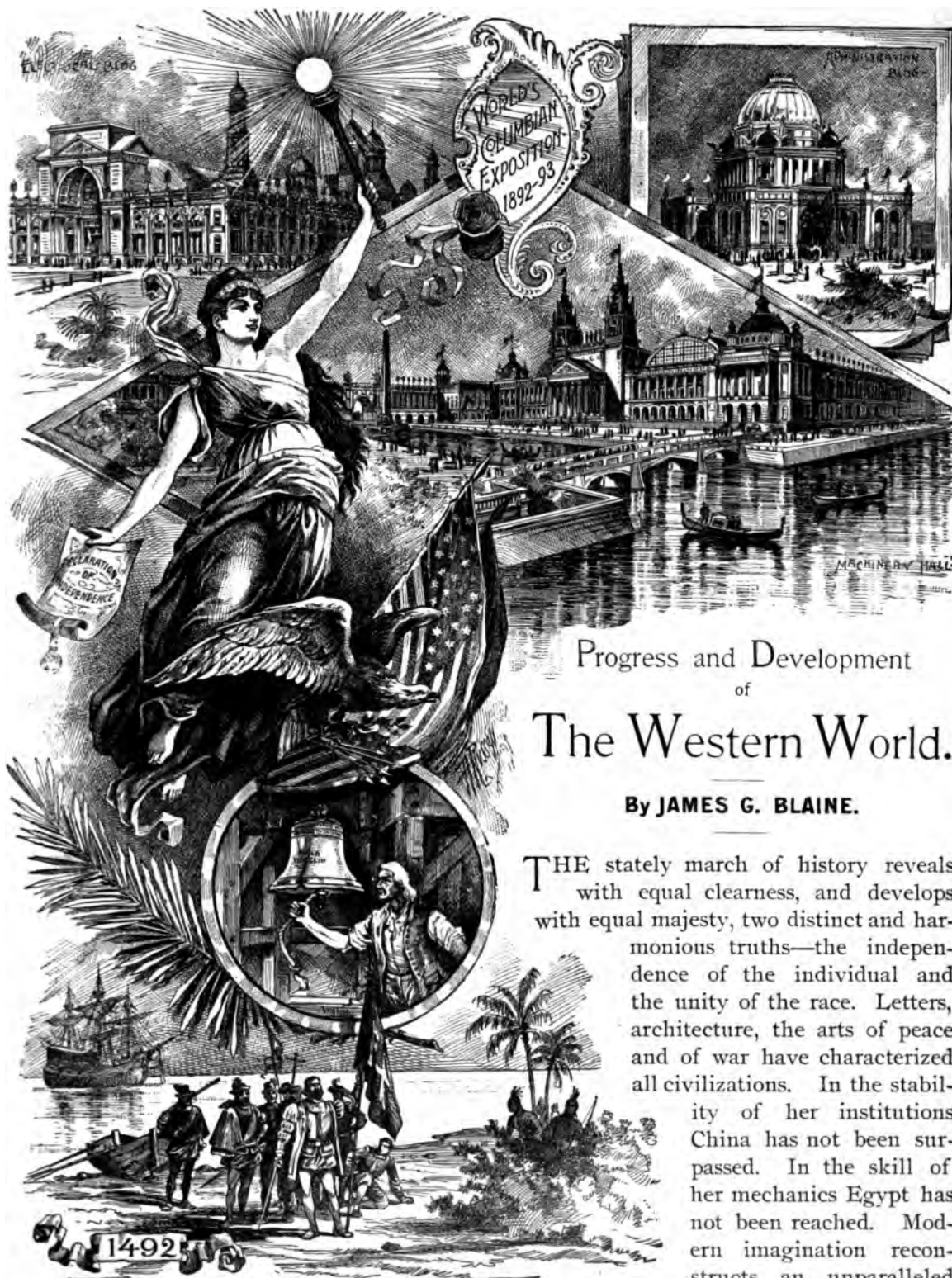
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*The
Progress
and
Development
of the
Western World*

by

James G. Blaine
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Progress and Development
of
The Western World.

By **JAMES G. BLAINE.**

THE stately march of history reveals with equal clearness, and develops with equal majesty, two distinct and harmonious truths—the independence of the individual and the unity of the race. Letters, architecture, the arts of peace and of war have characterized all civilizations. In the stability of her institutions China has not been surpassed. In the skill of her mechanics Egypt has not been reached. Modern imagination reconstructs an unparalleled

splendor from the ruins of Assyria. Nineteen centuries have not added to the grace of the Greek column or to the strength of the Roman arch. No proverb has supplanted the

patience of Job or the wisdom of Solomon. Our highest aspiration is to combine, never to excel, what Matthew Arnold might call the sense for beauty in the old Greeks, the sense for organization in the old Romans, the sense for righteousness in the old Jews. No poet has plucked from Homer his laurels. No brush has stolen a tint from the fame of Apelles. No chisel has chased a line of loveliness from Phidias. Moses and Solon have never been surpassed in statesmanship, or Alexander in military science and skill, or Plato in philosophy, or Cicero in eloquence.

UP TO THE HEIGHT, WHENCE FREEDOM SURVEYS THE WORLD.

Human faculties show a very small range of difference through the centuries. The pendulum of human powers from age to age sweeps through the same arc. The distinctive trait of modern times is that the achievement of the highest is brought down to the service of the lowliest, and thus the impress of value is stamped upon the individual human being.

The development of the modern world is towards all men, and not towards one man. To build up the marvels of antiquity the few led, the many followed; the few ruled, the many were driven. The toiler was not considered. He was a beast of burden. He was used and he was sacrificed. He had no voice in affairs. He was built into the walls of cities, his blood outlined the boundary of nations, his labor wrought the luxury of kings, but himself had no civic existence. As a man to be considered or consulted, a man whose happiness or health or wish was to be taken into the account, he was not.

Through the turbulent centuries the individual man has forged to the front. He is still in the heat of struggle, but he has tasted power, he has tested his strength, he knows that the world is his. The old Greek thought that philosophy demeaned itself by stooping to uses. Now man stands with a flaming sword at the gate of all science and demands the watchword "use!" No plan or project has any claim on success except through the conviction and consent of the masses. What was the luxury, the convenience, the amusement, the occupation of the nobility is now in the home and the workshop and the common talk of men. The roads, the aqueducts, the temples, the statues, the masonry and the music, the painting and the palaces, go on as best they may, striving to rival, not hoping to surpass, the old; but the builders are not slaves. They are men. They are free. They have will, opinion, choice, responsibility, ambition, gratification. In this chiefly consists the superiority of the present, and it is the noblest of all superiority; for man is greater than anything man can do.

THE TRIUMPH OF DEMOCRACY.

Yet this was but a necessary evolution. In the weak beginnings of the race all the combined strength of the inferior must be concentrated on the upbuilding of the superior, that the slight superiority may be preserved, increased, transmitted. By slow action and reaction through countless ages, civilization has risen out of the welter of barbarism and animalism—slavery ministering to power, power in turn ministering to humanity through slavery—till to-day we stand, not indeed on the heights of heaven, but in full sight of a fair land. Power has become infiltrated with morality. Authority is held to strict account. The rights of weakness are recognized if not always respected. Tyranny is at any moment liable to successful resistance and is nowhere so strong as not to be somewhere open to scoff and sneer. The vice of absolutism pays to liberty the tribute of explanation, if not of hypocrisy. Military rule seems to be still prevalent and autocratic, is onerous and pervading, yet undergoes every moment, however slightly and silently, without observation and without disturbance, an organic change into public opinion.



NEW INVENTIONS CONTRASTED WITH THE OLD.

1. The first passenger train. 2.—The fast express. 3. The coming air-ship. 4. Balloon. 5. Three-deck wooden warship. 6.—The latest Iron-clad. 7. A passenger steamer. 8. Fulton's first steamboat. 9. Wooden cannon of the 15th century. 10. Modern gun that throws a 400-pound projectile twelve miles. 11.—Flint-lock rifle. 12.—Sectional view of magazine rifle. 13.—The anvil and sledge. 14.—The steam trip-hammer.

After the long trance of the Dark Ages, when poetry and art and learning and thought were reawakened by the light touch of antiquity, and faced the sun of a new day whose meridian we have not yet reached, there awoke also another, a giant, not from sleep but to new life—"Triumphant Democracy." It was not recognized. No man knew of its coming. But the world all unconscious was presently astir with preparation of the paths for its victorious feet. The renaissance, the revival of painting, of art, of letters, is a revival, a renaissance, a renewal of the old. But the reawakened mind was not to be



GUTTENBERG AND FAUST DISCOVERING THE ART OF PRINTING.

content with following the paths of the ancients, in which it must always follow, never lead. New paths were struck out, of which the ancient never dreamed, in which the modern world has no rival, whose miracles eclipse the mysteries of the past only to unfold greater mysteries in the future; whose end lies even now beyond the utmost stretch of imagination. And every shining path leads to the fireside of the humblest home, to the weal of the smallest child, to the health and the happiness, the purity and the strength of Triumphant Democracy.

It seemed a little thing that men should be playing with blocks in a corner of Germany. Men had been playing with blocks and making pictures for centuries, the known

world over. But suddenly some one conceived the idea of multiplying pictures from the same block, and the art of printing was caught forever.

BLESSINGS UPON THE PRINTING PRESS.

There is no reason discoverable why this should have occurred in the middle of the fifteenth century any more than in the fourteenth or the thirteenth. Other centuries and other countries had gone as far in the preliminary processes as had Central Europe of the fifteenth century. The Renaissance had set all the keen intellects of Italy hunting



AMERICAN GENERALS OF THE REVOLUTION.

among the dusty heaps of rubbish in the darkest corners of remote monasteries for the precious manuscripts of the old writers, and thus the wealth of the best days of Greece and Rome was seized and opened to the air and the light. But the distribution of these manuscripts had no part in the purpose of the mechanics who invented what we mean by the art of printing. It was Italy that was devoting herself to the collection of these rags of lost literature, every rag of which was cloth of gold, and Italy had been doing it for a hundred years before Guttenberg in Mainz, or Coster in Haarlem, or some other obscure workman or workmen in the cold north, made that turn of the hand which proved to be the most important turn—change, invention, discovery—ever recorded in history. It was no fragment even of the grandest of the old Pagans, of whom perhaps the Costers and Guttenbergs had never heard, which the printing press proffered as the first fruits of its mission. It was the Bible !

Whether by a "fortuitous concourse of atoms," or by "that disposition of unknown causes which we call accident," or by that intelligent non-human arrangement of human affairs that seems to imply an unseen intelligent power which most men delight to call God—the invention of paper preceded the invention of printing. Men had been playing with pulp as they had been playing with blocks, for many centuries ; but it was only in the second half of the fourteenth century that manufactories of paper were set up and the use of paper for all literary purposes was established in Western Europe, and it was not till the fifteenth century that paper finally superseded vellum and left the latter but a curiosity and a luxury. Thus, in the marvellously ordered march of humanity, by the time that man had discovered the way to print with rapidity he found already provided for the printing press a cheap and abundant material on which to print. And when the cheap paper had supplanted the costly parchment, and the quick printing press had supplanted the slow and costly copying by human hands of every page of manuscript that made literature and letters, lo ! the brightest intellects among the scholars of their time had already collected and furnished to this new art a store of the best manuscripts from the best writers of the preceding ages, and thus were preserved from all further danger of loss the choicest gems of the past for the adornments and service of the future. The priceless treasures of culture, the fruitage of a vanished world, had been stored safe in mouldy monasteries until they were given over to the more lasting safety of the printing press for a world that was not born.

We have not made finer pictures, we have not even printed with more elegant type, or constructed more beautiful books than the men of that day ; but we have brought the multiplication table to bear on the printing press, and every morning the laborer may carry to his work with his dinner pail a newspaper bringing him the last words from the ends of the earth ; a work of art—a work of arts, which it would have been impossible for the fourteenth century to perform, and which it would have taken the lifetime of a man to record ; a work of art which enables the daily toiler to be a more competent judge of the trend of the day's events than any king of antiquity could become by all the swift messengers that his wealth or power could command. It is the invention of printing that has brought the king, man, to his own.

DEMOCRACY OF THE DE MEDICI.

It would be impossible to give the most cursory survey of civilization in Europe during the century that witnessed the discovery of America without desecrating the figures of the House of Medici, a house which occupies in history the unique position of being Royal without title ; popular, in a day of well-nigh absolute monarchies ; autocratic on no authority

but the good will of the people; democratic, yet governing with no divided sway. Cosimo and his more eminent son, Lorenzo the Magnificent, were Potentates in every sense of the word, yet they held no fixed offices and only "the likeness of a kingly crown had on." Unanointed by that oil of consecration which certifies the Divine Right of Kings, they bore only the seal of eminent ability which constitutes Divine Right to the People.

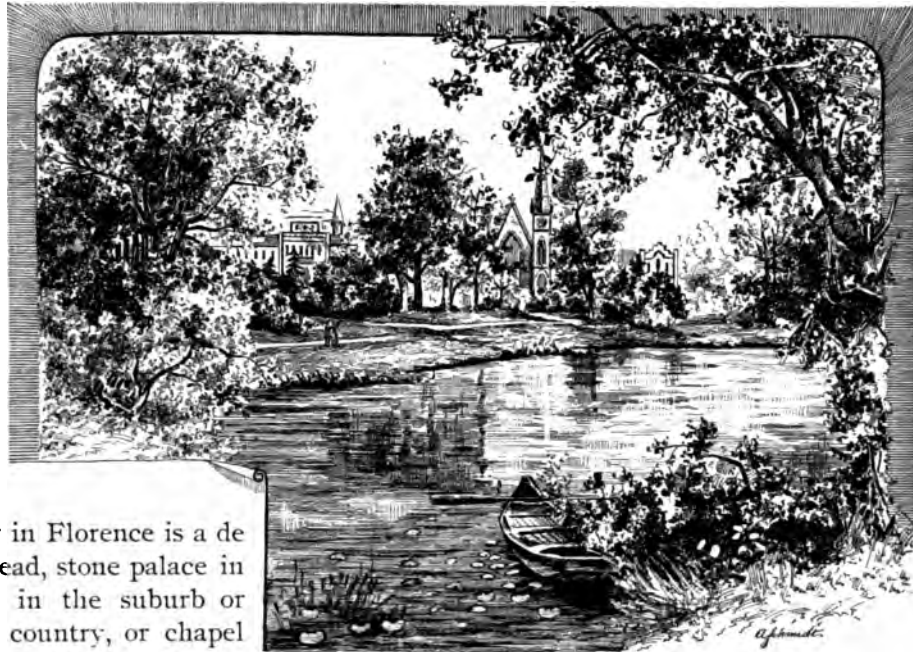
One cannot be a day in Florence without being aware of the royal presence of these men of the people. Yet on the very threshold of modern biography their origin is so obscure that even the name is uncertain and unexplained. Among the ancient Guelphs, the Ghibellines, the Hapsburgs, the Savoy—and numberless names that have strayed down from a hazy past, the Medici name stands underived. The popular tradition is that sundry early Pieros, Giovannis and Lorenzos, having acquired wealth and distinction as druggists, or doctors, applied to the reigning Pope for a coat-of-arms, and that he in derision

recommended them to take their own pills for heraldry! The decision which he made in mockery they accepted in seriousness, as befitting the dignity of their occupation and their family, and having, it must be admitted, the undeniable right of success, to do so.

And now wherever in Florence is a de Medici, living or dead, stone palace in the city, or villa in the suburb or farm-house in the country, or chapel in the church, or monumental stone or triumphal gateway, there, carven

in the grey granite or on the white marble, or brilliant in red and gold, is sure to be found the de Medici pile of pills—whose flavor Americans ought especially to recognize, since the glory of the de Medici is purely a popular glory. Whether by pills and potions, or by trade and commerce, the distinction of the family so long as it remained distinct was a distinction of peace rather than of war, of character and not of blood. They could fight and they could plot, but their preëminence was their intellectual leadership. They were the true Grand Dukes, advisers of the people, princes, not of the blood, but of trade and commerce, of arts and letters and manners. Amassing vast fortunes in peaceful paths, in trading, farming, mining, banking, it was all by way of ministering to the comfort and convenience of men and not to their misery, by adding to the wealth of Italy, not to its destruction.

Fair farms still lying along the fertile valleys and climbing the sunny hills roundabout Florence attest Lorenzo's love of nature, his taste in scenery, his skill in agriculture, his



HOME OF THE DE MEDICI.

shrewdness in business. At Poggio Cajano, driving out from Florence, he rested in his simple little rustic villa, or walked in his fine old park watching the Tuscan Mountain peaks piercing the brilliant Italian skies. But, as the Scotch say, "he was all there"—his eye to business as well as his eye for beauty. Availing himself of his neighborhood to market, he fed so high his lowing kine and worked so vigorously his cheese tubs and presses that he presently monopolized the cheese trade of Tuscany, and drove the cheese trade of Lombardy from the market. Like a large-minded, economical Yankee farmer he appended his pig troughs to his cheese factories and kept herds of hogs to fatten on his whey. The four centuries have not taught men how to turn waste into pork more deftly, or even how to improve the race of swine, or the quality of the cheese. The mulberry trees which, taught by his multifarious traffic with other countries, and ever eager to make experiments, he planted lavishly, were so successful that the silk trade is said to have been threatened with panic and the price of silk was permanently lowered thereby.

PATRIOTISM AND GENEROSITY OF LORENZO.

The wealth which Lorenzo amassed in increasing the wealth of his country, he was lavish in expending to her advantage as well as his own. Not only a lover of letters, but a writer of no mean capacity, he was always first in recognizing and cherishing the genius of his own day and in stimulating the discovery and recovery of works of genius in the past. Wherever a scholar-traveler stood ready to run to the ends of the earth for a treatise of Quintilian, a line of Plautus or a paragraph of Cicero; whenever a teeming brain was fain to write its "poems for eternity" in nave and choir and tower and turret; wherever a youthful Angelo was to be cherished into a sculptor, or a fiery Savonarola conciliated into a friend, there Lorenzo was found with open door and open purse and open heart. Like his father, he devoted vast fortunes to the adornment of his native city with palaces whose stately majesty still testifies to the nineteenth century of the terrors which confronted, as well as of the generosity which ennobled, de Medici citizenship. For three centuries the history of the city was interwoven with the story of their house, and their name has been glorious in Florence for four hundred years.

But the de Medici did not found a republic; the later de Medici could not even maintain the magnificence of their illustrious predecessors, but passed, by marriage alliances, into the mob of ordinary kings, or degenerated into the oblivion of titular Grand Dukes of Tuscany, courageous or cruel or common-place, whose sole magnificence is in their tombs; while the Tuscany which they had found prosperous and vigorous, they left weak from the constant drain of taxation, dispirited from the oppression of vicious laws, a demoralized and decadent country.

FORESHADOWINGS OF A NEW AND HIGHER FORM OF GOVERNMENT.

The de Medicis did not found a republic, had no conception of a real republic. The Italian municipalities were the successful but slight attempts of the people to govern themselves. They were the foreshadowings, but not the models of the colossal republic that came after them. They prepared the way for republics, but no great nation could be organized to permanent prosperity or even to vigorous life on such republican principles as gave to the free cities of Italy a long and brilliant career. The de Medicis emerged from obscurity, at too late a date to establish a dynasty and create a kingdom under the world-old laws of kingdoms and dynasties; but at too early a date to organize a republic under the new world laws of republics. Their republic though not a kingdom, was republic only in name—was nearer a tyranny than a republic. Cosmo, the father, solved "the strange

problem of becoming absolute ruler of a republic that was keenly jealous of its liberty, without holding any fixed office, without suppressing any previous form of government, and always preserving the appearance and demeanor of a private citizen." But that was not the problem whose solution the world was seeking. The son Lorenzo, cherishing already the modern idea of the civil equality of States, and taking as the basis of his foreign policy that idea of unity which in our day under the patriot kings of the dynasty of Savoy has changed Italy from a "geographical expression" to a European power—left no foundation for the future, because he had no idea of constitutional government by representative assemblies, of the regular and orderly progress of the popular purpose through legislative debate and resolve to authoritative and respected execution.

Standing exactly on the line of cleavage between the old and the new, Lorenzo furnishes us with a clear and definite picture of the struggle between them: of the circle within which the victories of the old time have not yet been surpassed, and of the limitations which must ever have hampered the new world-drama upon the old stage. By reason of his intellectual enlightenment, he gave his name to his age as truly as did Augustus of Rome, or Elizabeth of England; but it was a name and an age of literature, of art, of personal sovereignty, not of a fundamental transfer of human power from one man to man.

What can be effected by one man through sheer mental superiority and its attendant advantages of wealth, tact, and influence, that was accomplished by Lorenzo in his brief but brilliant hour. It was a brief and brilliant failure because he had not conceived and could not formulate those principles which underlie all successful social self-government on a large scale. With his death, the curtain fell upon Europe as the arena of humanity's highest effort at organization, and the scene shifted to another world arising out of the western waters.

"The old order changeth giving place to new."

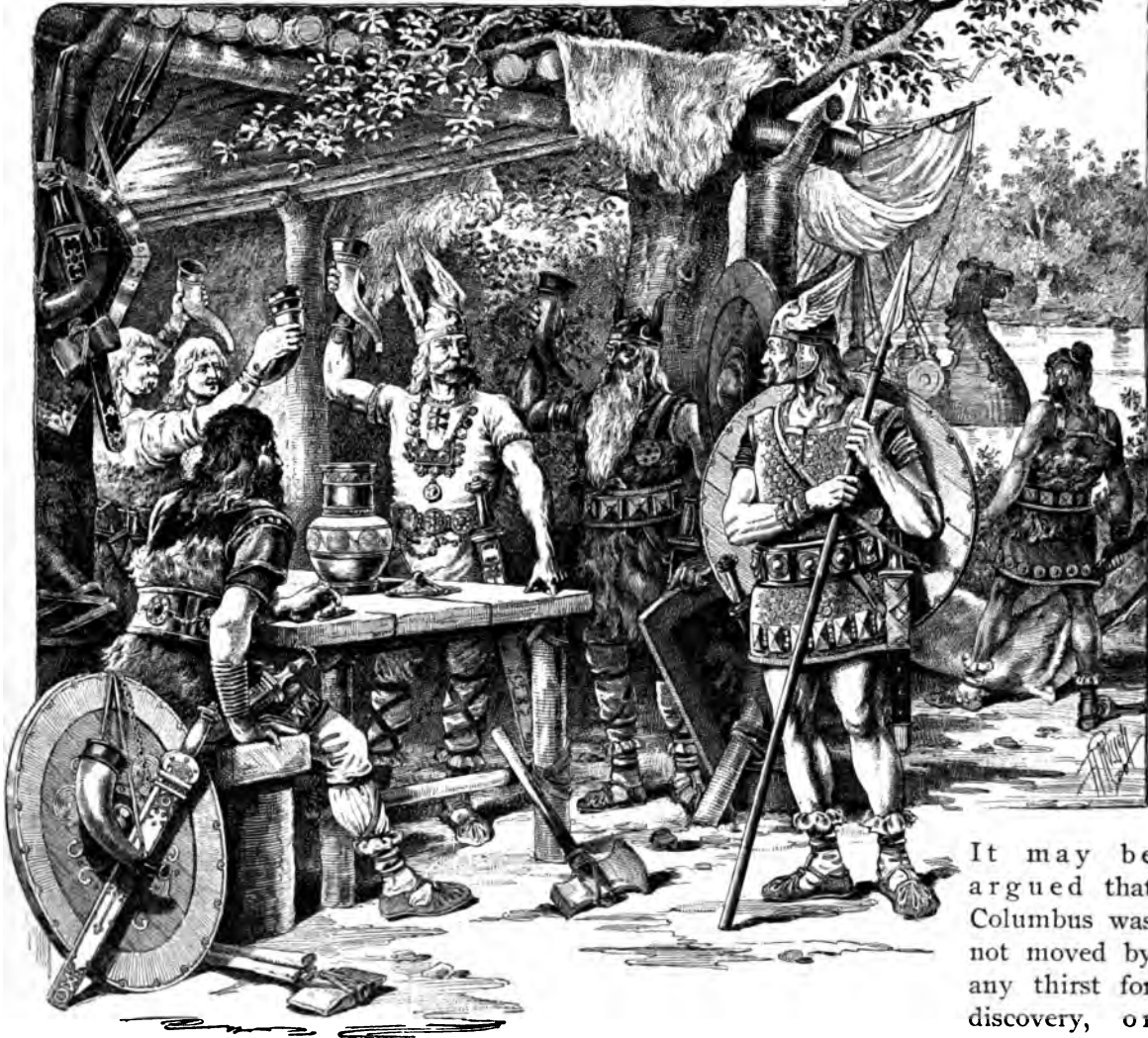
THE TWO GREATEST SONS OF ITALY.

The same "time-spirit" which set one Italian at the head of Europe in point of art and learning, set another Italian at the head of the world in bold speculation regarding the unknown. The same Italy and the same year of our Lord that bore Lorenzo to the gates of farewell, flung wide open the gates of welcome in another hemisphere to a man who, all unwittingly, planted with his flag-staff the seeds of the greatest republic this planet has yet known. What the restrictions of time and place had never permitted even to the dreams of the one lofty mind, that, the equally lofty but utterly different aspirations of the other made possible—a colossal republic whose foundation-stone is Liberty constitutionally organized by the popular will adequately educated and legally expressed.

On April 8, 1492, at the early age of forty-three, Lorenzo left his so-called republic to crumble into swift ruin and passed into the unknown world. On the third of August, of the same year, Christopher Columbus set sail for a world which to him was far more problematical, more consciously unknown than, in that day of ecclesiastical faith, was the spiritual world to his great contemporary.

Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, discovered America in 1492. Thus we were taught in the trustful days of childhood, and though modern research, whose scientific motto seems to be "Whenever you find a fact challenge it," has had its tilt at every item in the lesson, it remains after the fray as before it, practically true that Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa and discovered America in 1492. It may indeed prove that the shabby little house, well inscribed in Cogoleto, monumentally honored, fifteen miles out from Genoa,

and not Genoa itself, is the true birth-place of Columbus. It may be that Columbus was not the family name, but the *nomme de guerre* conferred by his comrades, or adopted by himself, or by some earlier member of his family. It may be that a thousand mariners hundreds of years before Columbus discovered America, had been assiduously landing on it, had built their towers and left their traces and sailed away again. It may be that Columbus did not of his own will and wit discover America, but, heading wildly and desperately westward for the East Indies found America in his way, and being obliged either to ground on it, or go under it, discovered it per force.



NORSEMEN CELEBRATING THEIR DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD.

It may be argued that Columbus was not moved by any thirst for discovery, or for adventure, or desire for

the solution of a problem, or for the answer to a question, or for the acquisition of any knowledge whatever, but was chiefly bent on acquiring a factitious fame by appropriating the maps that he found in the archives of the office to which he was appointed,

and followed out their suggestions and designs to his own glory. It may be or it may not be that posterity will relinquish the heroism of Columbus and count him a vain and captious, if persevering and pertinacious, man. But that time is not yet. We do not go into the arcana of history to decide or even to discuss disputed questions. They are investigated elsewhere and their ultimate answer must perhaps await still further revelations from some yet undiscovered or undeveloped recess. But for permanent settlement, for history's possession never again to be lost except in the wreck of worlds, America was discovered in 1492; and the figure at the prow pointing westward, the figure on the first shore with knee bent on the longed-for soil and eyes upturned in gratitude to heaven, is the figure of Christopher Columbus.

A TRIBUTE TO COLUMBUS.

Amerigo Vespucci is the name on the forehead of the New World. Numberless Norsemen rest in nameless graves; but on this the four hundredth birthday of the historic continent, the name which is in all hearts and on all tongues as the discoverer, is his whose face looks calmly down from the walls of the Council Chamber in the Palazzo Municipale at Genoa, and whose marble figure fitly embowered in the palms of the Piazza Acquaverde receives forever the kneeling tribute of this New World—Cristoforo Colombo.

That the name of Columbus should be immortal while adventurous sailors from Europe visited these shores for four centuries before he was born, and yet remain without fame and without tribute, is not the caprice of fate, but the inherent logic of events. They had been on the New England coast and left undoubted evidence of their presence, but no result for humanity. Their discovery was a mere chance adventure. It came to nothing because the time was not ripe. The Old World did not yet need the New; was in no way prepared for it. America would have been useless to Europe for she could not then colonize this new great wilderness. Europe was still in the Dark Ages; many parts had not emerged from barbarism. She was not sufficiently advanced in letters, or in arts, or in mechanics to take proper advantage of the discovery, and therefore the discovery came to naught; was practically no discovery. The facts of landing and gazing and seeking are preserved only in rambling records; for records among the Norsemen in the eleventh century were but crude songs and wild narratives.

Columbus was no chance comer. The time was full. He was not premature; he was not late. He came in accordance with a scientifically formed if imperfect theory, whether his own or another's—a theory which had a logical foundation and which projected logical sequences.

Europe was not only fully prepared, but culture had been pushed to the point of enthusiasm, until it may be said that Europe was awaiting the event. Indeed it would not be far wrong to maintain that the next step in order was the expansion of the people, foreshadowing a new experiment in colonizing and settling new lands. Had the discovery been earlier it would have been fruitless. Had it been later the generous patrons might have passed away. It could not have been later because mind reawakened, refreshed, alert, was striking out in all directions. Had not Columbus discovered America in 1492, a hundred Columbuses would have discovered it in 1493!

Columbus played but small part in the drama after he had enacted the first and greatest. His first daring voyage involved all there was in the discovery for the world; all the glory that lay in it for him. His subsequent voyages were labor and heaviness, regret and pain. Like too many men who are foremost in a signal field, he met detraction and calumny,

persecution and penalties; and the life, distinguished by the great event of modern times, closed in sadness, if not in ignominy.

Swarms of discoverers followed him, striking shore from Labrador to Brazil. The quest of gold, the thirst for riches, the love of adventure, stimulated all maritime Europe, and a thrill of romance, a stir of travel, a tumult of ambition was aroused, the like of which had not been seen for three centuries; not since the crusades had poured Europe into the Holy Land. Western Europe was literally alive with this quest of a golden grail. Wild ventures were the order of the day, and if the great majority ended in privation and pain and death, still the number pressing on from the rear filled all the gaps and swelled the ranks.

PARTITION OF THE TERRITORY OF THE NEW WORLD.

Yet for North America in the first century nothing was done except in voyaging, in discovering, in making certain. There were so many places to settle that a choice could scarcely be made. In South America, gold being found, especially on the Pacific coast, there was large emigration. But in the North, where the higher civilization was to be planted, the seventeenth century had opened before any foot-hold was obtained for emigrants.

The first large tangible political effect proved to be the transfer of power by the maritime nations of Europe to this country, and colonization on a grand scale went forward. Ambition was excited; greed of gold was stimulated; the lust for dominion grew, and the partition of the New World was the result. England, France, Spain and Portugal mainly divided it in their eager conquests. Italy, which gave the discoverer, made no claim, planted no colonies. Spain, the strongest, most powerful and most ambitious, foster-mother of the New World by the aid and sustenance she had given Columbus which made the discovery possible, took, as was proper and natural, the leading share territorially. After some conflicts France took the second. It had not yet been developed that France was not adapted to carry on successful colonization, and she strove hard to plant her standard and achieve her title to a dominion which, if retained, would have made her the most powerful nation in Western Europe. England came in third in territorial expanse, and was almost exceeded by little Portugal, whose brave spirit of adventure at that time far out-reached its territorial limits in Europe, stretched forth to Asia and Africa and thought little of holding, though by uncertain tenure, the vast area of Brazil. Between the capes of Virginia and the rocky coasts of New England the centre of English adventure and civilization was set. Virginia had its first settlement in 1607; New England had its first settlement in 1620, and the English race in its rival divisions was transferred to the New World. New England and all its generations exhibited one type; Virginia and all its generations exhibited another type. And they still remain. English by descent, both of them, they yet differ as much as did the Puritan and the Cavalier in the reign of the First Charles. What vast effects flowed from this difference, subsequent history tells us—differences in settlement, distinct types of inhabitants, different fields of ambition and of effort. Time did not bring them together. It rather drew them wider apart, and the recent rebellion of the Southern States can be distinctly traced to the settlement of Virginia by Cavaliers and of New England by Roundheads. England held her colonies until they secured their independence—never shifted, never surrendered, never abandoned them, and she laid broad and deep the foundation of the power which distinguishes the United States above all other nations: the spirit of broadened liberty in institutions, of intelligent freedom in the individual.

For nearly two and a-half centuries, with various vicissitudes not necessary to recount, these four maritime countries held to their divisions of America, planted colonies, intro-



DEPARTURE OF THE PURITANS.

duced their own peculiar civilization, transferred their own culture and their own languages. Over them all, the sovereignty of Europe was extended.

As the colonies grew, differences developed in the governing powers, and at the end of a century and a-half, wars of ambition among the home governments had induced a change of rulers. In time, France, that held from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the middle of the continent and thence down to the mouth of the Mississippi, was compelled to retire from America and abandon the most magnificent empire of modern times. The three other Powers went forward, and in the last half of the eighteenth century England had increased her possessions; Spain held her own, and Portugal was still owner of the Brazils.

EVOLUTION OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC.

Three hundred years had been spent in trying to fasten upon the New World the institutions of the Old—so slowly grind the mills of the gods. It was not till the last quarter of the eighteenth century that England, who never surrenders, surrendered to her own, thus losing the mortification of failure in the proud reflection that she alone could produce the race that could conquer her! It was not till the last quarter of the eighteenth century, three hundred years from the time that Columbus set foot upon the islands of the Western Continent, that the spirit which had ineffectually struggled in the fifteenth century, broke its bonds in the Wilderness which had become a civilization, and formulated itself in an organization whose corner-stone was the equal right of every man to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. This was the port for which Columbus sailed, though he did not know it. Not the gold of nations or the glory of kings—pride of possession or pride of power, made the discovery of America worth while; but the tremendous impulse and opportunity it gave to mental activity, its wonderful loosening of the old shackles, and the impossibility of riveting them again on the new soil, and the field thereby furnished for building the eternal instinct of human freedom into a beneficent and self-perpetuating system.

To the men who went through our war of independence it was a long and severe struggle. In history, in the records of the ages of revolution from barbarism to monarchies, and from monarchies to self-sovereignty, the change came in a moment. But it should never be forgotten that to this glorious day of blossoming all the preceding days of humanity's long season had lent their sunshine and their rains, the ripening of their warmth and the resting of their frosts. It should never be forgotten that humanity, which in its development—absolutely free yet absolutely within certain rigid lines which it calls laws—had been forever building up, forever hedging around, forever pulling down the mountain peaks and ranges which it calls kings and dynasties, had by such processes reached a stage in which its conscious constituent atoms believed themselves able to range into order and conserve energy and direct progress without the medium of kings and dynasties. But the dynasties had settled down too heavily, too widely, to be easily removed. Europe was clamped with the rivets of ages. Her institutions were fixed, rigid, needing all available strength for their dislodgment and upheaval, leaving no strength to spare for training and fastening new institutions in their place. Thus, by no man's hand, the hour was pointed for leaving European liberty to its own working, European servitude to the slow corrosion of the air that should presently be quickened by ozone wafted from a new atmosphere, enveloping a new State founded under wholly changed conditions.

Then it was that the New World opened wide its golden gates—a virgin hemisphere—and invited the experiment of self-government on a scale commensurate with its importance. The new Spirit brooded over the waiting land and presently to the continent for whose dis-



HOMES AND BIRTHPLACES OF GREAT AMERICANS.

covery Italy had lent the patient explorer and Spain the vital succor, England brought her contingent of a sturdy race, and the Great Republic was born. Not unto us alone the glory but to all those before us who lived and labored and failed; to the millions who showed what was *not* the way, and by a thousand paths of exclusion led us to the promised land.

RISE OF THE GREAT WESTERN REPUBLIC.

The Great Republic—the infant Republic—lifted its head weakly, but proudly, among

the nations of the earth—so little, so weak, that its safety lay in its remoteness. For its



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN AT THE COURT OF LOUIS XVI.

remoteness had Columbus discovered America! Cradled in the Wilderness, too far off to excite fear in the monarchies, too poor to tempt cupidity, too weak to elicit antagonism, it waxed strong, almost unobserved. But from the first it had a moral force clear to seeing eyes. When Franklin went to the Court of France, the Court petted him as a toy philosopher; but there was another vision in France to which the real future was unfolded. This new

nation in the West was a beacon light to every aspiring spirit in Europe. France responded with a quick thrill of freedom. She had so long been crushed under her Bourbons that the reaction seemed portentous. Her revolution came, like ours, with blood, but, unlike ours, was drowned in blood. The trampled slaves of despotism, stimulated by the success of America, turned upon their tyrants and became frenzied with the fierce joy of finding that they could turn—that they too could trample. The awful stress developed all the dignity that is in kings, all the horrors that belong to a mob; and France, weary of blood and weak from its loss, threw herself into the arms of Napoleon.

Like the Bourbons he was a Ruler, but unlike the Bourbons he was a strong Ruler; unlike the Mob's, his was an organized Rule. His childhood was passed under the light of the American Revolution. His serious young eyes watched that successful resistance to the established order. He had learned the weakness of dynastic sovereignty, the strength of popular sovereignty. In a certain sense it was not only the island of Corsica but the New Republic in America that contributed Napoleon to Europe.

It is difficult for us to imagine the amazement, consternation, wrath and repugnance produced in the ruling class by the apparition of this unheralded, unclassifiable, overpowering phenomenon, rising from the ranks of the people, approaching without permission the ranks of the kings. The Western Republic had dethroned her king, but he was three thousand miles away from her and she was three thousand miles away from Europe. Napoleon was at the royal elbow mounting thrones, ordering kings to the ranks and the rear in the very presence of their astonished and delighted subjects.

RESULTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution had shown Europe what dormant strength was in the people; but it was a strength violent in action, spasmodic, unorganized, made drunken with blood, wild with revenge, cruel, brutal, revolting. The Bonaparte was of the people also, but he had seen across the sea the power of organization, and no sovereign was a sterner representative of social order, of military marshalling, of law and equity, of church establishment and even of regal splendor than this Democrat overturning the monarchies. Even in the king business he outdid the kings—fought harder for his sovereignty in war, wrought better for his people in peace. He heeded the voice he had heard ringing across the waters, "Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed," and he sought to win that consent by ministering to their comfort and their elevation and by making them partakers in his glory when he thrust his horn against their tyrants. It was in their cause that he attacked their enemies.

Napoleon's long captivity, which was the only answer Royalty could make to the logic of his mind and his sword, led him for occupation and amusement to reminiscences which cast many a curious side light upon points which would have been lost in the full glare of continuous prosperity. "If my son lives he will be something. As to those contemptible little States I would rather see him a private gentleman with enough to eat than sovereign of any of them." What was the Duchy of Parma to a man who had jostled kings aside with a cheerful promptness, and felt the great mistake of his life to be that he had not jostled them more? "It only rested with me to have deposed both the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria. The Duke of Würzburg frequently insinuated to me that the only means to secure the good faith of Austria would be to depose his brother Francis and place the crown upon his head. . . . I was wrong in not having accepted the offer. Nothing would have been easier to execute."

"Perhaps my greatest fault was not having deprived the King of Prussia of his throne,

which I might easily have done. I could have dethroned the King of Prussia or the Emperor of Austria upon the slightest pretext as easily as I do this"—stretching out one of his legs.

For the minor kings he had but an easy tolerance as "good plain men;" but for the Bourbons he could hardly conceal his contempt. He had met them on their own ground. He refused to waste any money towards getting them into his hands. "I despised the Bourbons too much, and had no fear of them." "What signifies now? Under the Bourbons France will never be a first-rate power. There is no occasion to be afraid of her. She will always be an inferior power under that house of blockheads."

WEAKNESS OF NAPOLEON IN NOT TRUSTING THE PEOPLE.

"Louis wrote me a long letter after Marengo, in which he said I delayed for a long time to restore him to his throne; *that the happiness of France could never be complete without him* . . . and concluded by desiring me to choose whatever I thought proper, which would be granted under him, provided I restored to him his throne. I sent him back a very handsome answer that I was extremely sorry for the misfortunes of himself and his family; that I was ready to do everything in my power to relieve them, and would interest myself about providing a suitable income for them, but that he might abandon the thought of ever returning to France as a sovereign, as that could not be effected without his having passed over the bodies of five hundred thousand Frenchmen!"

Europe thought she knew what France wanted better than France herself knew, and set Louis hard down on the French throne. And France, as soon as she could get breath, drove him off and kept up the hunt till the last Bourbon—and perhaps the most honest of all, though a bigot—yielded up his breath, a private and no king.

It was not till Napoleon broke with his past that the future broke with him. Touching the earth he was strong. Standing on the thrones he became weak. But his stride to the thrones was a haughty stride. When in an evil moment, under the allurements of "a dynastic" ambition, he decided to dismiss his wife of the people and assume a wife of the princes, it was to no "little duty tyrant of Italy" he applied, but to the haughtiest and highest of the royal houses. Murat was wiser than the Emperor, and protested that his true alliance was with the people, not with the crowns, that his true power was in himself, not in borrowed strength. But Napoleon could not withstand the temptation to order himself a bride from the powers that hated and scorned him. He forsook the reality of superiority for a taunt—nay, he went further and taunted the kings with their mesalliances! When the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of George III, married the Prince of Hesse Homberg, Napoleon scornfully declared that "The English royal family mix themselves in with little petty princes to whom I would not have given a brevet of sous-lieutenant!"

The English royal family, with a brutality which stains the history of the English nation, could chain their captive to a scorched rock in a torrid sea, but his scorching sarcasm no waters could quench. And the royal family of England has gone on "mixing in" and in with Pattenbergs and Campbells, with railroad directors and New York business men—touching so low down the standard of royal rank that it may one day rise to newness of life by reason of its standard of plebeian strength.

NAPOLEON'S RETROSPECT OF HIS DEEDS.

When Napoleon's short but strenuous work was done; when he had shaken the monarchical idea in Europe from centre to circumference, and forever shattered the peculiar sacredness, the direct *divine rightness* which sanctified a throne, and sat in his soli-



NAPOLEON AND MARIE LOUISE AT FONTAINEBLEAU.

tude reflecting on his successes and his failures, his thought showed him, with all his weakness a son of his time. He had destroyed with his irresistible sword, but he saw clearly that his true glory lay not in his destruction, but in his construction. He claimed from the future his harvest of glory from the seed he had sown of our planting ; from the consent and progress and organization, the service and the rights of the masses ; not from the sweep of his battles, but the scope of his benefits. "At least," he cried, when Europe had combined and crushed him, "they cannot take from me the great public works which I have executed, the roads which I have made over the Alps, and the seas which I have united. They cannot place their feet to improve *where mine have not been before them*. They cannot take from me the code of laws which I formed, and which will go down to the latest posterity. All my exertions were directed to illuminate the mass of the nation, instead of brutifying them by ignorance and superstition.

"If my government had remained in Spain, it would have been the best thing that had ever happened to Spain. Instead of a feeble imbecile and superstitious race of Bourbons I would have given them a new dynasty that would have no claim on the nation except by the good it would have done it. For an hereditary race of asses, they would have had a monarch with ability to revive the nation, sunk under the yoke of superstition and ignorance."

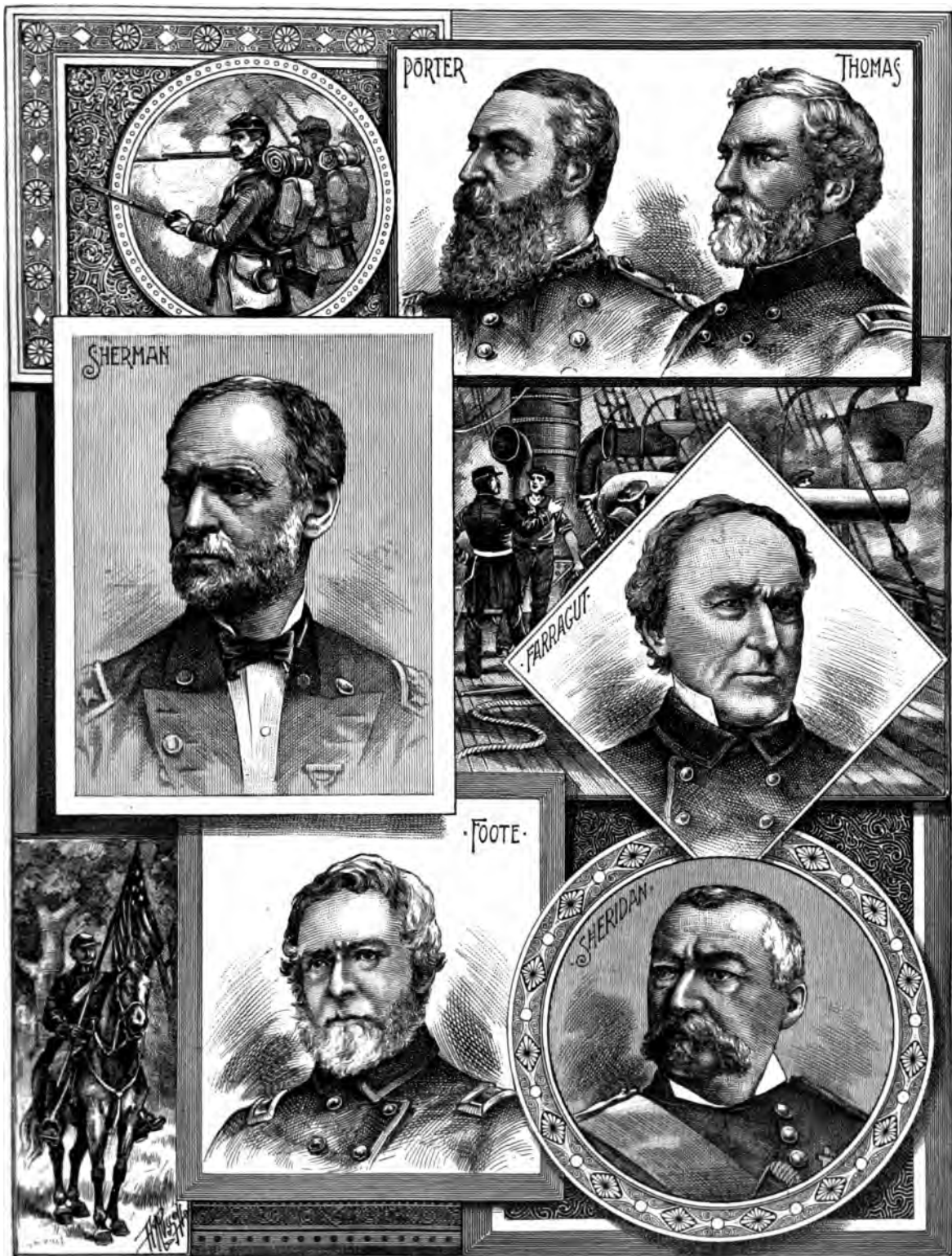
Looking at the march of his time this great Democrat declared : "In fifty years Europe will be either Cossack or Republican." The fifty years have gone by and Europe is neither Cossack nor Republican. Nor is the prophecy utterly false. The path of humanity on this planet is as slow and as swift as the path of the planet in the heavens.

Our republic worked its way along towards the close of its first centennial birthday with the seeds of dissension, division, dissolution in its bosom. When liberty was fashioned into its corner-stone, slavery lay alongside, incompatible but not disallowed. The incompatibility increased till the whole fair structure was threatened. Undoubtedly the negro race was civilized by American slavery as it could have been in no other way, but the white race was demoralized. The white race, not the negro race, rose in rebellion against slavery and abolished it. Thus the last stone of stumbling and rock of offence was thrown out of our path and there remained nothing but the healing of wounds, a renewal of strength, a growing unity of feeling, and we discover to-day a vigor, a prosperity, a progress, an attainment which has never before been seen ; a hope and an aspiration which embraces all the ages and all the races in its scope.

THE NATIONS MARCHING TOWARDS A DEMOCRACY.

Under this unflickering light Europe is slowly advancing her own way in the experiment of self-government. France, the France of the Bourbons, of the bloody Revolution, of the autocratic Napoleon, has taken upon itself the disposition of its dynasties and is the republic of Carnot, the great, friendly respected republic of two and twenty years' standing, of Parliamentary assemblies, and popular ballot and constitutional right ; changing its government by orderly, regular, legal and peaceable elections—a great Power among the nations on equal footing with the empires.

The Tuscany of Lorenzo, the Genoa of Christopher Columbus, the Rome of Sixtus IV and Leo X are united—on the lines of Lorenzo's ambition but on a larger scale and on loftier principles than he ever divined—into the nation of Italy, whose chosen head is Umberto, perhaps the most conscientious, the most high-thinking, the most hard-working of her citizens, whose one purpose is the dignity and the welfare of his country. Italy holds her shrines in proud and fond exhibition for the world's sacred pilgrimage of art and



DISTINGUISHED UNION GENERALS.

religion. Her Palaces of Cosimo and Lorenzo, her treasures of art and antiquity belong to the world by the divine right of spiritual descent ; they are the common heritage of culture, tenderly, reverently cherishing the past—as vitally ours as they are the royal heirlooms of Savoy. Her polity goes hand in hand with our Great Republic towards the future. The country which Columbus discovered—a wider nation than the area of the combined nations of Europe—gives greeting and the right-hand of hearty fellowship to the country which produced Columbus.

The thinking men, the aspiring Castelars, of Spain and Portugal, dream of a republic,



THE LAST OF MONARCHY IN THE NEW WORLD—EXILE OF DOM PEDRO FROM BRAZIL.

and have even cautiously and carefully attempted an experimental popular government, but the time is not yet ; their people have not trained themselves to so great a change. But the wise men of Spain are at the helm and are guiding their gentle young Queen and her infant monarch along the true paths of constitutional government and national prosperity. One by one, however, the colonies in America have fallen off from Spain and have peace-

ably become an integral part of the nation which Isabella helped to found, till now, on our four hundredth birthday, Spain bears no sway on these continents and holds no more in this hemisphere than the islands where Columbus first set foot.

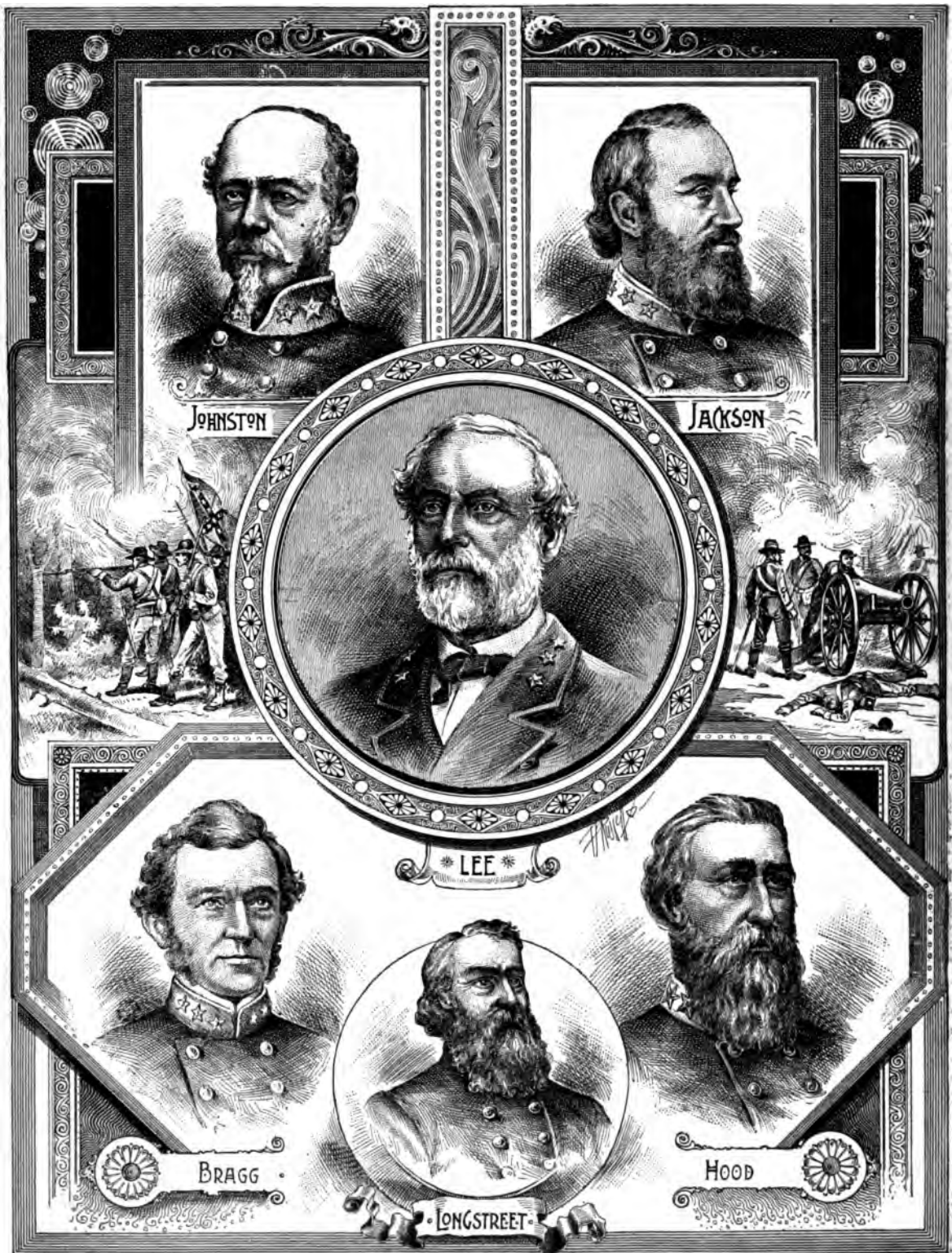
"The House of Braganza has ceased to reign," proclaimed Napoleon. The House of Braganza, driven from Portugal by a man of the people, fled to South America and established a new and larger Portugal upon the imperial estate of Brazil. Intelligent, learned, patriotic, beneficent, Dom Pedro won for himself a place in the hearts of his people that should have held him in life and death—would have held him but for fear of the future, of a lordship less paternal, and, therefore, otherwise intolerable. Every ocean breeze came heavy laden with Republicanism, and over every mountain and down every royal water-course came the tidings of peaceful compact in thrift and commerce and all industrious traffic, and mutual sympathy and benefit, by the nations of the hemisphere—and Brazil could not endure her leading-strings, even held by so thoughtful and loved a hand. She determined not to await a tyrant for the struggle, but gave to her kind old emperor her blessing, and bade him go. The House of Braganza was not used to such sort of dismissal, suspected treachery and violence beneath it, and made a sudden farewell to Brazil—a hurried flight by night. The House of Braganza ceased to reign, and went back to Portugal to die. Except the inconsiderable colonies of the Guianas, the whole southern continent is held by its inhabitants in their own possession and control.

ENGLISH MONARCHY A SHADOW ON DRESS PARADE.

The government of the British Islands is an absentee land-holder in America. But England has gone steadily along the path of her history from the days of Runnymede, till her monarchy is but a dress parade at home; and the shadow of a dress parade stretching three thousand miles westward is an exaggerated and rather grotesque phenomenon.

On this continent England's dependencies are scarcely more than dependencies in name, and the tie is a sentiment. Because a man's quickest and frankest foes are they of his own household, our resentment of English insolence, our wrath at English injustice, our disgust with English stolidity and brutality, are more easily aroused, more widely and keenly felt, more savagely expressed than in the case of any other nation; but so also is our respect for English honesty and enterprise, for Scotch shrewdness and acuteness, for Irish wit and warmth, and for the courage common to all. The crimes, vices, weaknesses, and antagonisms of other nations are veiled from our people by a foreign language; but among our wide nation of newspaper readers and writers every loose arrow shot from any reckless and foolish English newspaper finds prompt lodgment somewhere, and as prompt a return fire; so the air is often darkened with weapons that sting but do not slay; while always underneath lies the constant sense of common history, traditions, understanding, aims, which promises well for the ultimate and perpetual harmony of the great nation of the masses, and the masses of the great nation, who are working intelligently towards the same goal. Our differences are the relics of barbarism. Our agreements are along the pathways of peace and righteousness.

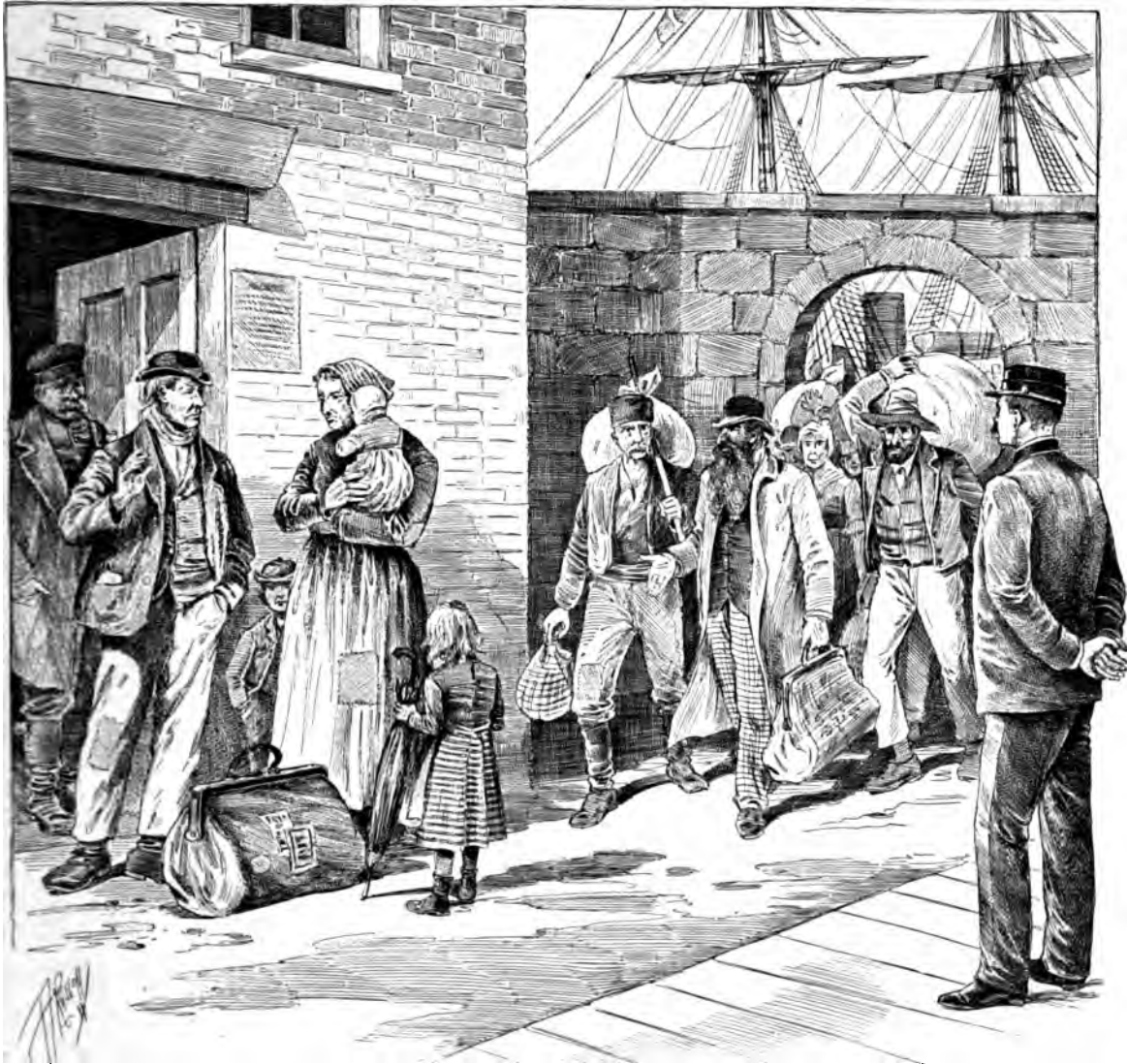
The America of to-day belongs to Americans, and Americans, with a thousand fightings and no fears, are all friends. Among the other nations of the world, we have no natural ally, no natural foe. The armies of Europe are the enemies of Europe, but they are not ours. Her standing armies are the moth that corrupts, the thief that steals the substance of the people; but they do not threaten us. Our mission is peace. Our only threat to Europe is the menace that to other forms of government, supported only by the insupportable burden of enormous standing armies, must inhere in the spectacle of a great



republic resting on the will of its people, the pride of its people, the reason of its people, with no standing army save a little police force—not enough to protect a single city if the strength of that city did not dwell in the honor, the virtue, and the love of its citizens.

LIBERTY AND THE PURSUIT OF HAPPINESS.

The source of our rejoicing on the four hundredth birthday of our country is that here the lowliest citizen may by energy, industry and thrift, self-denial and self-control, live in



CASTLE GARDEN, THE GATEWAY OF IMMIGRATION TO AMERICA.

his own house, cultivate his own garden, earn and eat meat every day, educate his children in reading, writing, the rudiments of geography, arithmetic, grammar, history and music; read a newspaper, wear decent and comfortable clothes every day, and fresh and comely clothes during his Sunday rest; may take a holiday with wife and children when he chooses, may have a share in the government of his nation, state, town, having thus a voice in

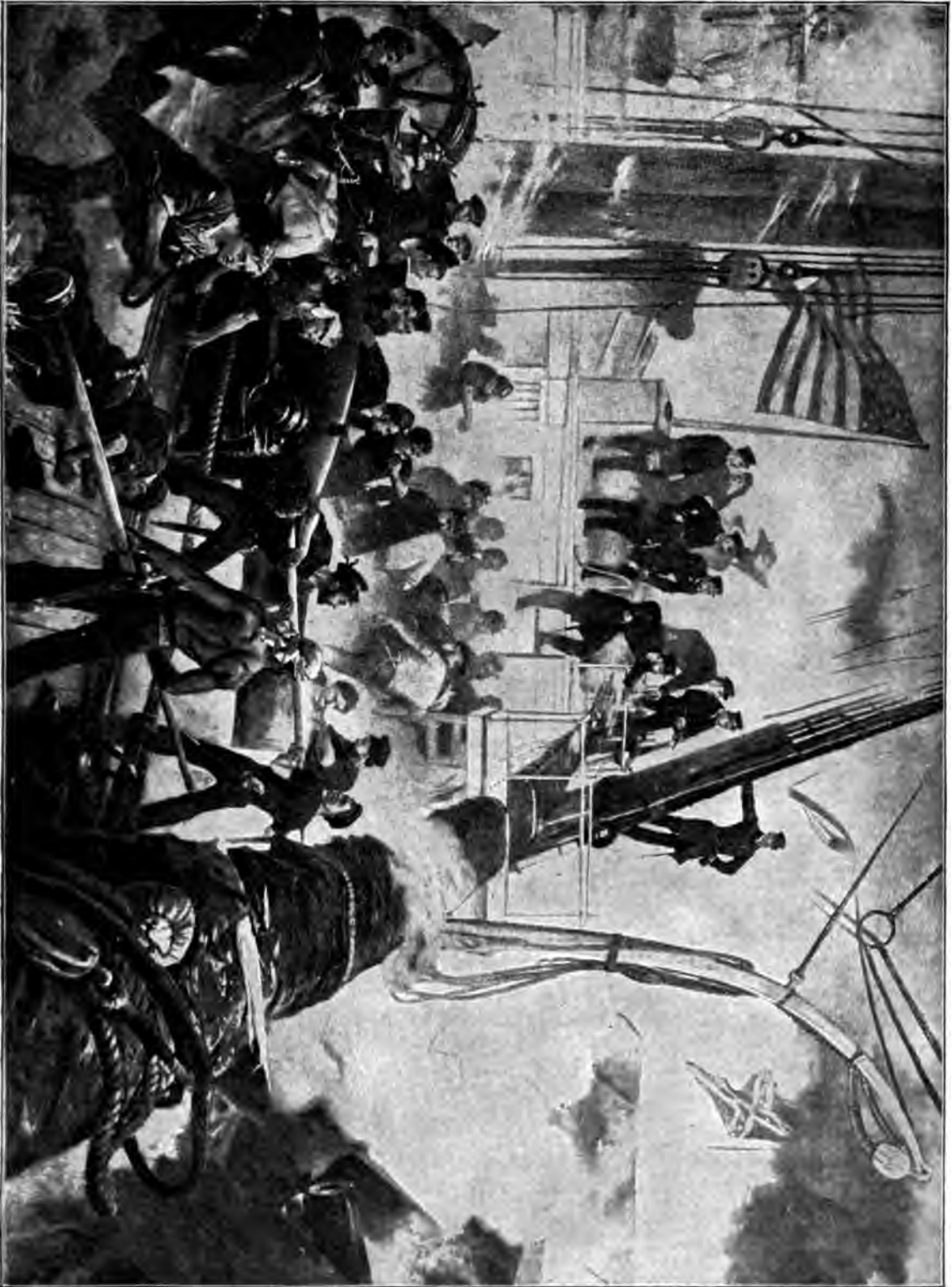
assessing and spending as well as paying his taxes; may worship God as he pleases, where he pleases, and if he pleases, answering only to God for his course and never forced to support a church establishment in which he does not believe.

We rejoice because we believe this material comfort and peace and consequent independence to be the foundation—not the source, but the proper basis of intellectual and spiritual growth. In a world where matter is the matrix of mind, where the animal is the shrine of the spiritual, the animal must best serve the spiritual when it is in so good a condition as to cause no undue deflection from intellectual tendencies. In spite of the many and marvellous instances of mind lording it over weak and defective matter, it remains indisputable that matter should be the willing and capable servant of its master, mind, and that time spent in subduing the unnecessary discomfort and overcoming the unnecessary weakness and incompetence of the body is time wasted. The ultimate, natural, and designed dominion of the human being is not over its own defects, but over the hitherto uncontrolled forces of the world. Just in proportion then as the condition of all the people is more comfortable than the condition of the people in the old world, in that proportion the discovery of America by Columbus was successful. Our belief that success in this respect is not followed or attended by failure in the spiritual or intellectual forces is founded on facts that are not at issue. Beyond controversy our one hundred years of self-government show not only a larger number of homes more comfortable, better furnished with the appliances of a higher civilization than the homes provided for a people governed not by themselves, but by others; but they are also in the way of showing an intellectuality as commanding, a morality as high and prevailing, a religion as spiritual and as pervasive as can be furnished to a church by a bishop, to a State by a king.

THE EVILS OF UNRESTRICTED IMMIGRATION.

Indeed, our chief danger to-day lies in our unparalleled and over-mastering success. Its story is told everywhere. Our wealth is a proverb. The Republic is a visible and perpetual object lesson in the great task, the great mission of self-government. But its prosperity is also greatly misunderstood. The wretched of other lands rush to enjoy its benefits with no conception of the training, the character, the self-denial requisite to the performance of its duties. The rich and powerful of other lands do not hesitate to unload upon its ample shoulders their burdens of pauperism and crime which they have created and which they would gladly see us share. The idle, the seditious, the malodorous and malcontent, the demagogue and the desperado mistake liberty for license and flock hither to fatten on the honest earnings of better men than themselves, thinking that robbery and revolt are permitted industries in this free land, that treason may be approached and ever committed with impunity, and that a republic is Anarchy.

Not by such practices did we reach our high estate. Not on such principles were the foundations laid by our fathers. Italy did not present to civilization the American continent, England did not furnish to civilization the American Nation, that a government might be instituted among men which should derive its just powers from the dissent of the ungovernable; not even that the miserable of the earth might find an asylum. The one is wholly antagonistic, the other purely accidental to our great movement. Liberty is the first law of a lasting republic, but it is Liberty under order, Liberty with equal justice. The poor and the oppressed of other lands are welcome; but they are not welcome to prey upon our own thrift, to violate our laws, to swell and not to share our burdens. Intelligence, industry, morality, honorable ambition are welcome to our hospitality and our citizenship, but not ignorance, pauperism or crime. Let the dead bury their dead. America is for the living.



YARRAOUT ENGAGING THE CONFEDERATES IN MOBILE BAY.

This continent was discovered for humanity's benefit on a larger scale than the relief of individual distress. It is a stage large enough for the enactment of a drama which engages the world's attention—the capacity of man for self-government.

America justifies her birth-right only as she—not relieves merely but—uplifts, enlarges, strengthens the individual man in the widest organized community. Her peculiar glory is in the masses—their intelligence, their comfort, their domestic happiness and dignity, their right thinking and right acting, their recognition and due discharge of responsibility, their freedom from unworthy ambition, their adoption of intellectual, moral and spiritual aims. If in this she does not excel all other nations, America will have been discovered in vain and Christopher Columbus might well have died in the little grey house at Genoa-Cogeleto. Great men, prodigies of thought, poets, philosophers, inventors, generals, preachers and scientists—the republic hails them all. She believes that her system tends ultimately to their multiplication and enlargement; but such natures break all bonds everywhere, and come to the front by virtue of inborn and irrepressible energy. No continent need be laid bare for them. They force their own field. It is the weal and opportunity of the masses, helpless except in combination and organization, for whom America was kept intact and virgin from shore to shore—tenanted by no man and no race that left an institution to hamper the future.

THE CORNER-STONE OF RELIGION AND A KEY-STONE OF THE TEMPLE OF MORALITY.

The opportunity laid upon us is matchless; but matchless also is the responsibility. What our fathers delivered to us, that should we deliver to our children, not only undiminished, but increased, enriched by our experience and by the rapid and wonderful developments of science. A marvellous ingenuity is smoothing the rough ways of the world. A scientific theology is pointing out the footprints of the Creator to common sense. The brotherhood of man, the fatherhood of God, is becoming the corner-stone of religion, as revealed in Christ and as clearly traced in human history. Upon the conscience of every man and every woman in this country is laid the weight of obligation to certify the success of our great experiment—to certify the adequacy of the individual to self-direction. Every man who falls below his highest, harms not only himself, but lowers the standard of his country. Every man who values wealth more than honesty, rank more than character, amusement more than improvement, ease more than reform, to that extent falls short of the perfect citizen. Every woman who abuses the freedom of American womanhood by abandoning herself to unfaithfulness lends the powerful incitement of her personality to the slavery of the past and to the failure of the republic. Every woman who leaves the duty and decorum of her native land and prostitutes her American name to the scandals, the vices, the social immoralities and moral impurities of foreign cities not only compasses her own shame, but mars the fair fame of the republic. It is only by surpassing the world in all chivalry and dignity, in all modesty and purity, in the integrity of our business, in the virtue of our homes, in the rectitude of our intelligence, in the aspiration of our intellectual life under the absolute control of moral righteousness, that we can meet the responsibility of our continental empire, beautiful for situation, unparalleled in resources, impregnable in foundations, unconquered in history and we believe unconquerable!

PART II.



Columbus and The New World.

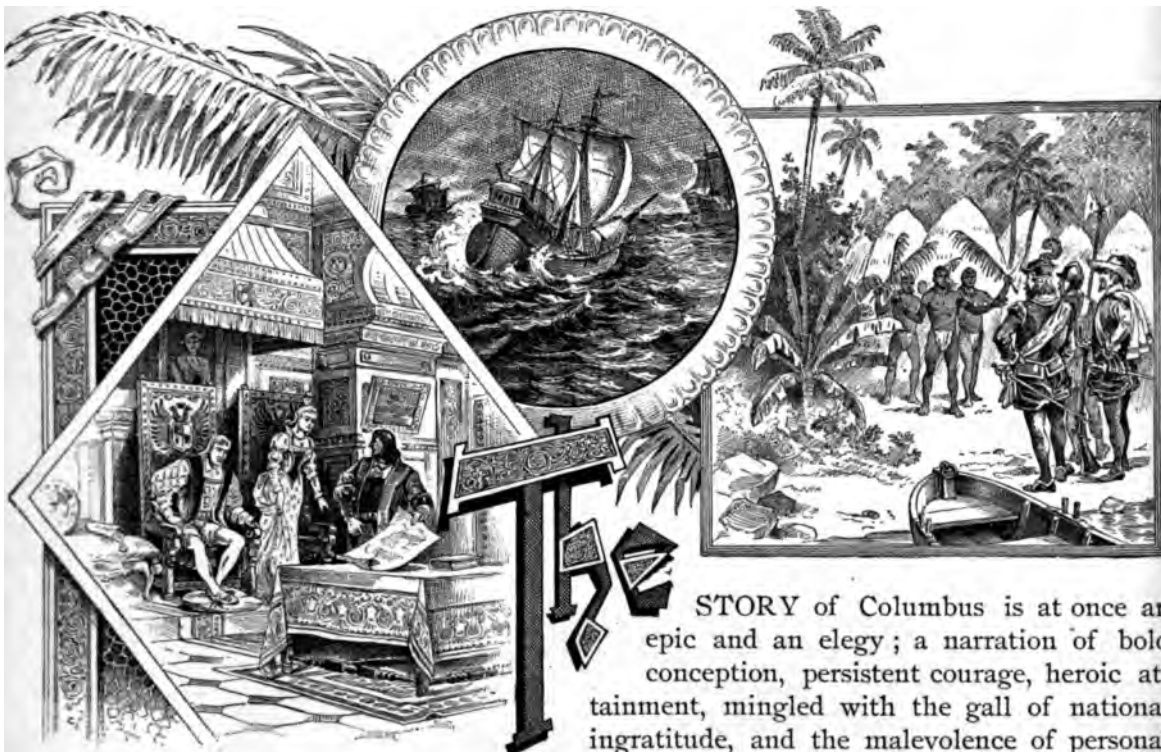
BY J. W. BUEL

COLUMBUS AND THE NEW WORLD.

BY J. W. BUEL.

CHAPTER I.

THE ADVERSITIES OF COLUMBUS AND HIS ENVIRONMENTS.



THE STORY of Columbus is at once an epic and an elegy ; a narration of bold conception, persistent courage, heroic attainment, mingled with the gall of national ingratitude, and the malevolence of personal

jealousies. The adventures of the Homeric Ulysses were not more illustrious with valor ; the afflictions of Niobe were not more tearful with despair. East and west of his life there were bitterness and shadows : radiant Hope tip-toeing on the pedestal of wondrous accomplishment, and Faith bowing with grief before envious and invidious rivalry. No character in the world's history was ever more highly honored for chivalrous achievement ; none more maligned by perfidy or oppressed by the spitefulness of malice. He was a product of the brave days of old, yet was he a victim to the spirit that gave birth to intolerance and persecution ; for the heroism that sought a reclamation of the holy sepulchre ; that produced Ruy Diaz Campeador (the Cid) ; that measured lances with Mohammed-al-Nasir on the decisive and bloody field of Las Navas de Tolosa, was twin brother to that purblind theopathy that established and energized the Inquisition.

If we consider the slavishly superstitious, the intolerantly bigoted, the audaciously savage age in which he lived, which was characterized by the most desperate impulses, we will be prepared to understand and to appreciate the disposition and proclivities of Columbus; to applaud his courage, and to condone his vices. For he was not without human frailties, as will be shown, but these were national—mediæval—rather than personal; errors of the times rather than passions peculiarly his own. His was an age when so-called civilization saw no wrong in banishing Jews and confiscating their property to convert it to holy purposes; which believed that true piety and loyalty to God were best manifested by burning heretics at the stake as awful examples, or by torturing the impious until they confessed the vice of their unbelief; “for,” as answered Torquemada, “were it not better to sanctify men through afflictions of the flesh than that they be suffered to continue in their evil ways to the loss of their souls and their damnation through all eternity?”

Cruel as these horrific measures were, and barbarous as these beliefs appear to us now, they were not the results of human depravity or moral debasement; so far from this being true, the people were wondrously devout, and it was the intensity of their religious, pietistical fervor that led them to adopt extreme methods for the conversion of all men to the true faith, for they honestly believed that this would alone secure for them salvation and a beatific condition after death. “What,” argued they, “is the suffering of the body on this earth, compared with the results that affect the endless life in that world to come?” They accordingly accepted literally that divine injunction which demanded, or required, the sacrifice of eye or hand should they offend, and gave it that broader significance which to them justified a sacrifice of the sinful by any means howsoever cruel.

Though we cannot excuse the slavery that tormented for opinion's sake, yet it is not entirely just to hastily condemn the spirit of the masses, whose pious convictions gave creation to the Inquisition; for no single Church bears all the odium of persecution, any more than any one people is chargeable with the crime of bigoted intolerance. There have been transition periods in the life of all beliefs, and of all denominations, during which the dominant sect has shown jealousy and injustice. When the time shall come that such a spirit is dead, then may we conclude that there is no difference of opinion, and that the lion and the lamb have laid down in perpetual truce, and universal, enduring peace hath possessed the world.

With this understanding of the animating ambitions of the times, I beg the reader will regard the beliefs and acts of Columbus, since to present a faithful history of his life it is necessary to record many facts which would otherwise put to shame the merited fame which he won, and the results which left us such a glorious heritage—Columbia.

NATIVITY OF COLUMBUS.

As the greatest men in the world's history have, as a rule, risen from obscurity, Columbus, who perhaps conferred the largest benefits upon mankind, was not an exception, but rather a conspicuous exemplification of the assertion. For, so lowly was his birth that little information has been preserved respecting his youth, while his nativity, like the place of his final sepulture, must forever remain a question of contention. The time of his birth is equally a matter of conjecture, various dates being assigned between the years 1435 and 1448, though the preponderance of evidence points to the former, which we shall accordingly adopt. Cuccaro, in Montferrat, and Savona, pretend to the honor of his birth, but the place that with best reason claims his nativity is Genoa, which was probably also the birthplace of his father, whose name was Dominic Columbus, the Latin orthography, or *Colombo*, as it is

written in Italian, or *Colon*, as it is called in the Spanish. Dominic married a lassie named Susana, who was daughter to one James Fantanarossa, of the village of Bassago, who brought him a small income, but so inadequate to his needs that immediately after marriage he moved to the neighborhood of Genoa, where he set up in a small way as a wool-comber, employing one workman and a single apprentice. The house in which he thus began business, which was at once residence and shop, was just outside the limits of the municipality, and it was here that Christopher was born, and also his three brothers, Bartholomew, Pelligrino, and James afterwards called Don Diego. There was also a daughter, who married a pork-butcher named Bavarello, of the vicinity, but her name and place of nativity are unknown.

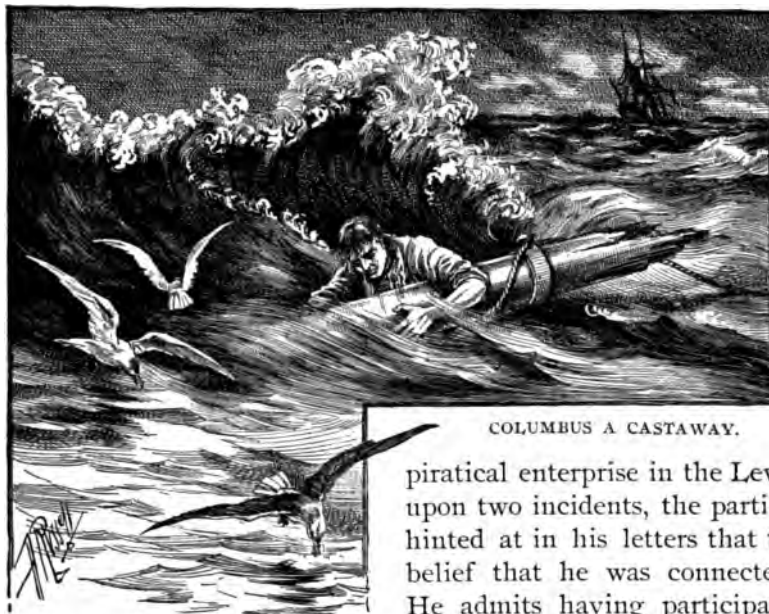
The first several years of Dominic's married life were spent in the house in the Genoese suburbs, but he afterwards rented the building to an innkeeper, and moved into a somewhat more pretentious house which was located at No. 166 Mulcento Street, where he continued the business of weaver, but with indifferent success. It is maintained by many of Christopher's biographers that he was descended from a noble family that had been scattered by domestic dissensions, such as were very common among the Italians in the early centuries, and very good evidence is presented in support of this claim. While the occupation of wool-comber represented a great condescension in one who had been derived from the *noblesse* rank, we know that Christopher had a grand-uncle who held an admiral's commission in the service of Rene, duke of Anjou, which was the most illustrious of all engagements in that day, and was open only to those who had some rightful claim to distinguished ancestry. But that Columbus was a descendant of the great Lombard family, as his most enthusiastic admirers declare, there is exceeding doubt, amounting to denial.

That Dominic was a kind father, and thoroughly appreciative of the importance of education, is attested by the fact that when Christopher, his eldest child, had reached the age of ten years, instead of putting him to service, where he might be helpful towards increasing his slender income, which indeed little more than sufficed for the support of his now considerable family, he sent him to the University of Pavia. Since the branches which distinguished that famous school were natural philosophy, astrology and geography, the conclusion is irresistible that young Christopher must have had some previous instruction to qualify him to enter upon such advanced studies. At this university he continued for a period of three years, though there were intervals in his attendance during which he was an assistant to his father in the factory, so that he acquired a fairly good knowledge of the trade and might have afterwards followed it, as did his brothers, but for an incident that lifted his feet from the dull path of obscurity and planted them in the road that led to ineffable glory, of which we, more than his own countrymen, are the chief beneficiaries.

AMONG THE PIRATES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

Young Christopher did not improve his advantages to their utmost, for he was more diligent with conceits for wider fields of adventure than in application to his text-books, a condition which brought him into antagonism with his teachers, that resulted either in his expulsion, or voluntary, but sudden and secret, withdrawal from the school. We may, without injustice to his memory, infer that he was guilty of conduct which led to his peremptory dismissal from the university, since history tells us that he ran away and took engagement on a vessel lying at the port of Genoa, as a cabin boy. To a youth full of animation and a courageous spirit, the dashing waves that beat up in restless flow against the rugged beaches, and poured their monody of complainings at confinement in his ear, there must have come a longing to sail away behind his little world that kissed the horizon scarce five leagues beyond the green hills of the shore.

To one of such a temperament as Christopher later revealed, there must have been an incentive to adventure in the wild stories of heroism on the sea, when every day had its savage incident of battle with pirates ; and when every sailor who came to Genoa sat on the quays, the centre of admiring crowds, telling his hair-breadth escapes, and moving youthful ambition by descriptions of strange lands visited between where the sun rises up out of the Mediterranean, and the blue mountains of the west, where he sinks down in dreamy slumber. All around him there were memories of valorous examples, for the fiery ardor of the Crusaders had not yet burned out. Fresh glories were being won by brave spirits that dared the fury of predatory Moors, whose ravages spread over the sea, and whose gilded crescents tipped lofty masts in bold defiance of the cross. Fortune and fame seemed to await the courageous, who while fighting for religion made spoils their reward, and thus the Mediter-



COLUMBUS A CASTAWAY.

anean was become a sea of battle, a rendezvous for the desperate, the daring and the adventurous.

History has not preserved the facts connected with his first maritime service, yet our small knowledge respecting his conduct, gathered from intimations made in subsequent letters to friends, leads to the belief that he shipped with a crew most likely bound upon some

piratical enterprise in the Levant. This suspicion is founded upon two incidents, the particulars of which are so vaguely hinted at in his letters that they afford good reason for the belief that he was connected with Archipelago Corsairs. He admits having participated in at least one bloody engagement, and concerning another De Lorgues, his most

flattering biographer, says : "In one of the combats, which has not been retraced by history, he received a deep wound, the cicatrix of which, though long forgotten, reopened towards his latter years, and endangered his life." On another occasion he was engaged in a naval fight which resulted in the destruction of his vessel, and left him struggling in the water with only a spar between him and death. With good fortune, however, he contrived to reach the shore in safety, providence having reserved him for a noble purpose. This last adventure is not well attested, and may be an apocryphal account by some essayist on morals not thoroughly veracious, yet the story is not an improbable one. But as Columbus refused to his death to make any statement concerning his Mediterranean service—when he had every reason to do so had it been patriotic—and since the commerce of that sea in his time was so joined with piracy as to leave the two professions scarcely distinguishable, honesty compels the presumption, if it does not confirm the belief, that several years of his life were spent with his superiors exacting tribute from merchantmen, and also in waging war against Moorish freebooters who infested the Levant.

Of the distinguished relatives of Christopher there were two who might have naturally led him to an adoption of such a career. One of these, who is known to history as the

elder Columbus, most probably a grand-uncle, bore a captain's commission from Louis XI. of France, but went so far beyond the limits of recognized duty as to win for himself the title of Arch Pirate. He is represented as a man of almost unexampled recklessness, and as being noted no less for his cruelty than for his boldness. Another kinsman, supposed to have been also a grand-uncle, was Colombo el Mozo, whose fame as a pirate rivals that of the elder. After achieving a wonderful renown by acts of incredible valor in the wars of the Genoese Republic, he fitted and armed a considerable fleet of his own and sailed against the Venetians, many of whose ships he destroyed after possessing himself of their cargoes. Subsequently he went against the pirates that patrolled the African coast in quest of prizes, and delivered such decisive blows as to practically break up the industry in that section, but only to transfer it, however, to other parts of the sea.

COLUMBUS BECOMES A ROVER IN OTHER WATERS.

After continuing for some years in a subordinate position, having attained to manhood, Christopher became such a competent navigator that he obtained command of a vessel and as such sailed out of the Mediterranean, on cruises to lands of the north-east, especially to Spain, France and England. The known facts concerning his early life are so meagre that we must rest upon the very few and brief disclosures made in his "Book of Prophecies," and these are scarcely more than the merest intimations of a very few of his acts, so that we cannot present his career either chronologically or with any attempt at completeness.

About the year 1470, Christopher took up his abode in Lisbon, whither his brother Bartholomew had gone a year before, having quitted his trade of wool-carding to become a cosmographer. The inference is gained from this known circumstance, that Christopher and Bartholomew had joined interests and were pursuing the same studies and with probably identical ambitions; for Christopher, besides being a navigator, began drawing charts at a fairly early age and these were no doubt used by Bartholomew in illustration of his theories respecting the constitution of the system of worlds. It was this study that undoubtedly led to his conception of the earth's shape, and his belief that the India of Marco Polo might be reached by a voyage towards the west.

MARRIAGE OF COLUMBUS.

Columbus, as we shall henceforth call him, was only a short while in Lisbon before he saw a most bewitchingly beautiful lady while attending mass in the Church of All Saints, and immediately lost his heart to the fair enchantress. He directly sought an introduction and at the first interview rejoiced to discover that his attentions met with favor, which encouraged him to press a lover's suit. It was not long after his meeting with the lady that he heard from her lips the affecting story of her life. Her name was Doña Felippa de Perestrello, one of three daughters whose father had once been a grandee of both fame and fortune. He had been a successful navigator, a large ship owner, and had rendered such valuable services to Portugal that Prince Henry rewarded him with the Governorship of Porto Santo, a fertile island near Madeira, off the north-west coast of Africa and on the route to the Canaries. A flourishing colony was here established by his endeavors, and large estates set in cultivation which were bestowed upon him as permanent grants from the crown. It was on this beautiful and prolific island that Doña Felippa and her sisters were born, and here they spent their girlhood amid surroundings dreamy, luxurious and ecstatic. The breath of perpetual summer was here redolent with the perfume of flower, and fruit, and wildwood, where an orchestra of gorgeously-plumaged birds filled the sensuous air with unceasing music, such as wakes the heart to blissful realization, and makes life as sweet as

a delightful sleep vision. Ten years, nearly twenty years, thus passed in the splendors of contentment before trouble invaded this bower of arcadian delight, and drove them from a garden which peris might have envied. In an evil hour a number of rabbits were imported into the island, without thought of the harm which these innocent-appearing animals might work, but they directly propagated with such amazing fecundity that in an almost incredibly brief time they became pests which resisted every effort for their destruction. Prolific as were the crops, so great was the destruction of these animals that the raising of any kind of vegetable became an impossibility and the colony was finally forced to abandon the island to escape starvation. Signor Perestrello, who in the meantime had invested all his means in Porto Santo, thus found himself literally brought to poverty through the ravages of rabbits, and removing to Lisbon, with the small remnant of his fortune, died shortly after his return, leaving his children to the care of some wealthy relatives of that city.

This narrative, following the facts as recorded by nearly all of the Columbian biographers, may be amended to advantage by opposing to the general statement the theory that since Bartholomew Moñis de Perestrello colonized Porto Santo as early as 1420, he must have died upon the island, leaving his government to Pedro Perestrello, his son, who was father to the beautiful Doña Felippa, otherwise she must have been too old for a fair wedding, and could not have been the lovely woman that captured our ambitious Genoese navigator at first sight. But whatever the facts, it is true that after a reasonably long courtship Columbus married Felippa, who, though possessed of small patrimony, brought her husband no mean distinction, for she was one of the first ladies of Lisbon, and was of great advantage in extending his acquaintance among influential people, particularly the nobility.

BRILLIANT CONCEPTIONS BORN ON PORTO SANTO.

We do not know how long he remained in Lisbon pursuing his profession as a cosmographer, but certainly the period was not great, for his restless ambition would not permit him to continue a quiet employment, and thus we learn of voyages projected and performed by him to other lands; but these were unsuccessful, because he retired to the uninviting estates of his wife on Porto Santo, which poverty alone would have induced him to do, and there his first child, which he named Diego, was born.

In this singularly quiet retreat, whence the first colonists had been driven by a pest of rabbits, Columbus conceived bolder schemes than had ever before moved him to ambitious undertakings. In poverty his mind found relaxation from the worriments of his former surroundings, and intensified his aspirations. His passion for the glory which feats at arms invest gave place to projects that contemplated beneficent results to all the world. Here he read with renewed interest the works of Ptolemy, the first geographer, of Aristotle, Strabo and Pliny, and studied with the keenest zest Cardinal Aliaco's "Cosmographia," in which science, superstition and absurd conceits were equally blended, to the confusion of truth. But his reflections and aspirations were most largely promoted by the travels of Marco Polo, and of Sir John Mandeville, whose narratives of adventures in the far east, in a kingdom called Cathay, and in the wonderful country of Tartary, stirred him with a new ambition, and lifted him from his impoverished surroundings to a realm of idealism—of dreamy splendor.

Before reading the astounding revelations of Polo and Mandeville, picturing a land of fabulous wealth and royal aggrandizement, Columbus had arrived at a theory respecting the earth's shape, and had become convinced of its sphericity. Now his resolution became suddenly fixed to confirm this belief and at the same time to find a water-way to the rich kingdom of the Tartar Khan.

EARLY BELIEFS RESPECTING THE SIZE AND SHAPE OF THE EARTH.

It was given to Columbus to demonstrate, but not to originate, the theory of the globular shape of the earth. Indeed, in this concept he was anticipated by writers of antiquity, just as he was preceded by voyagers to the Western Hemisphere many hundred years before his time. Aristotle and Strabo were in accord respecting the earth's sphericity, and only differed in their estimates of its size, the former being far wrong in his underestimation of the circumference, while the latter's computation was very nearly correct, viz., 377°. Marinus, of Tyre, a geographer of great renown, of the eleventh century, also believed in the rotundity of the earth, and fixed its circumference at about 450°, while Ptolemy, in the twelfth century, disputed the claims of Marinus only by reducing the actual circumference about one-fourth. Columbus inclined to the belief of Ptolemy, estimating, as he did, that only one-seventh of the earth was water; and this supposition led him to believe that Cipango, of Marco Polo, was not more than three thousand miles westward of Portugal, whereas the real distance to that country—believed to be Japan—is little short of fifteen thousand miles.

If Columbus was, as represented by nearly all his biographers, a student of the ancient writers, or geographers, he must have been impressed by the many allusions made by these to lands lying far westward of the Pillars of Hercules (straits of Gibraltar). Virgil is supposed to have referred to such lands in the sixth book of the *Æneid*: "Jacet extra sidera tellus," a free translation of which may read: "Beyond the horizon lies a country."

In Strabo's *De Situ Orbis* (1472) is to be found a clear expression of belief in the existence of a large country beyond the Atlantic, which he says may possibly compare with Spain or India. Besides the general views advanced by Ptolemy, there must have met the attention of Columbus the conflict of theories between that great Alexandrian geographer and Pomponius Mela, in which the former urged that discoveries be pursued east and west, while the latter maintained that better results would follow lines of exploration north and south, for by this philosopher, as well as by Columbus himself, the world was supposed to be pear-shaped. As early as the fifth century Macrobius, a Roman, declared that the earth was composed of four continents, two of which remained to be discovered, and this theory had several distinguished disciples preceding the Columbian age. Similar views, but somewhat more specific, and pointing towards a new world beyond the Atlantic, were expressed by Roger Bacon, Albertus Magnus and Vincenzius, all before the fourteenth century.

PREVIOUS DISCOVERIES OF AMERICA.

In addition to the theories which gave creation to the idea of a western continent long before the time of Columbus, there were not wanting evidences supporting the claim that this unknown country had been many times visited and described. A story was told, first by an anonymous writer, in about 1482, and afterwards repeated and adopted by several creditable authors, to the effect that a Spanish pilot named Sanches, while attempting a passage between Madeira and the Canaries, was driven out of his course by a storm and landed on



the shores of an island said to have been Hayti. Subsequently this pilot came to Lisbon and found lodgment with Columbus, to whom he related the facts and in whose house he died. It is also declared, by not a few reliable writers, that John Costa Cortereal made a voyage westward and reached the ice-bound coast of Newfoundland in the year 1463, and was followed thither by his brother a year later, on which voyages, however, they both perished. Niccolo Zeni, or Zeno, towards the close of the fourteenth century, started on a voyage from Venice in quest of new lands beyond Hercules' Pillars, and after sailing among the islands of the west for nearly one year, became pilot to an island chief named Zichmni, where he was some time afterwards joined by his brother, Antonio. Four years later Niccolo died in a country called Frieslanda, but Antonio continued in the service of Zichmni ten years longer, at last returning to Venice, bringing not only an account of a strange world



NORSE NAVIGATORS IN NARRAGANSETT BAY.

beyond the Atlantic, but also maps, letters, etc., referring to the country. It was not, however, until 1558 that a descendant of the Zenis discovered these valuable documents and caused them to be published, accompanied by a narrative of the voyages. After a thorough study of the subject, the following names have been identified on the Zeni map, as follows : Egroneland, Greenland ; Islanda, Iceland ; Estland, the Shetland Islands ; Frisland, the Faroe group ; Markland, Nova Scotia ; Estotiland, Newfoundland ; Drogeo, coast of North America, about Labrador ; Icaria, Ireland. Long anterior to this (270 B. C.) there was an account, incorporated in ancient geographies, of a voyage by the Grecian navigator, Pytheas, to unknown lands of the far west, and a map was drawn by Lelewel showing the discoveries of Pytheas, upon which is represented the island of Atlantis, and the shores of a country which corresponds with Brazil.

Among other voyagers who are said to have visited the new world before the time of Columbus was a Pole named John Scolvus, or Kolno, who, while in the service of Denmark, in 1476, was on the coast of Labrador; and a Dieppe navigator named Cousin, who while bound for some point on the coast of Africa, was blown far out to sea and reached South America in 1488. And on a chart prepared by the Pizigani brothers, dated 1367, there appear islands which may be identified with Madeira, the Azores, the Canaries, and also two islands, called respectively "Antilla" and "De la man Satanaxio," which are undoubtedly the same as Cuba and Hayti, while some knowledge of the two Americas is implied.

STRANGE RELICS CAST UP BY THE SEA.

Besides these testimonies supporting Columbus in his belief that land, or India, might be reached by sailing directly westward, there were other evidences, though less convincing. On more than one occasion pieces of wood, rudely carved, had been picked up on the coast of Madeira, and on the shores of the Azores had been found very large pine trees of an unknown species washed up by the sea. Columbus had also been told that on the isle of Flowers there had been found on the strand the corpses of two men of a race which none of the islanders had ever before seen. But this story, like that told by Martin Vincente, of finding a piece of carved wood more than thirteen hundred miles west of Europe; and of Antonio Leme, who claimed to have discovered a large island five hundred miles west of Madeira, is undoubtedly apocryphal, and comparable to many preposterous stories current at that day. Historians seem to be unmindful of the fact that there is no ocean current sweeping the American shores that would carry objects to the Azores or Madeira; and if there was such a current bodies of men would not be preserved, even in salt water, for a time necessary to drift them such a distance. Some have thought that long-prevailing winds from the west might have wafted these curious relics of a land beyond the Atlantic to the shores where they were found, but this supposition is as improbable as the story of St. Brandan, then current, having visited an island to the west that was peopled by demons and the ghosts of men drowned at sea.



But absurd as were many of the tales told by the superstitious and unveracious sailors, they doubtless had more or less effect upon Columbus, who was not disposed to reject the improbable when it might be turned to his advantage, either in strengthening his own faith, or helping to spread belief in a western passage to India in others.

The age in which Columbus lived was not one of unbounded liberty of either speech or conscience, and a degree of circumspection was necessary in putting forth any theory that controverted the opinions of the times, for otherwise public avowal was likely to be followed by public condemnation. For this reason Columbus acted with a discretion which showed that he was no less adroit than opinionated; appreciating the influence of scientists, and having already learned the views of Paul Toscanelli, the most distinguished Italian scientist of that time, through a letter which the latter had written to the King of Portugal, Columbus made bold to crave an expression of Toscanelli's opinion respecting his scheme. Probably the result was what he had anticipated, but whatever may have been his expectations, in a reasonable interval Columbus received from the distinguished Florentine a copy of the letter written to Portugal's King, bearing date of June 25th, 1477, in which communication the probability of reaching India by a voyage to the west was stated, and in a subsequent letter the project advanced by Columbus was commended.

Toscanelli, besides being a great cosmographer, astronomer, mathematician and astrologer, was a man of vast influence, who found a hearty welcome at the pontifical court of Rome, and who was chief adviser to the King of Portugal on subjects connected with geography and navigation. When, therefore, the views of Columbus received the endorsement of a man of such eminence as Toscanelli, and in which there was a concurrent



NICHOLAS ZENI, THE VENETIAN MARINER.

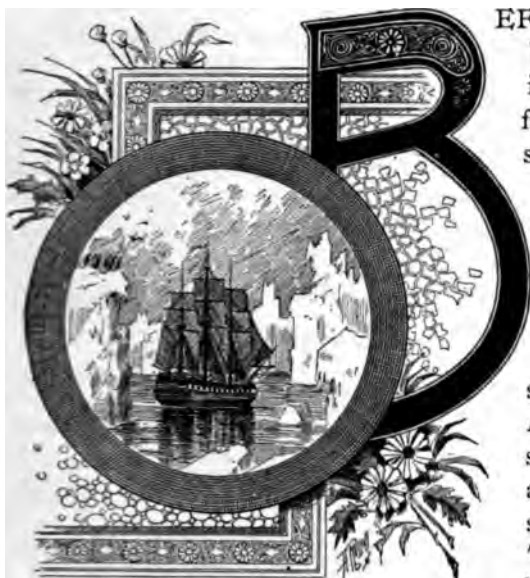
expression from Canon Fernando Martinez, he had obtained a recognition that justly increased his enthusiasm and determination, besides serving him greatly in converting others to similar opinions. Nor did Toscanelli content himself with submitting proofs adduced from his own knowledge as a cosmographer, for so interested was he in confirming the theories of Columbus, that he added to his letters the concurrent testimonies which he had gathered from records and correspondence with navigators, and thus materially assisted in leading others to embrace the beliefs which Columbus was seeking means to demonstrate. These opinions of leading scientists of the time served to renew interest in older sea tales in which unknown islands were represented as having been seen by shipwrecked mariners and super-pious bishops. It was this excited condition of the public mind, no doubt, that prompted Antonio Leone, of Madeira, to seriously relate to Columbus an account of his voyage a hundred leagues to the west and his having sighted three considerable islands, upon which, however, he did not land.

Others pretended to have seen islands suddenly rise out of the sea, and as mysteriously sink from sight again, while there was a legend, now often recounted, to the effect that on one island in the far west seven bishops had taken refuge in their flight (whether by ship or wing is not related) from the Moors and found thereon seven splendid cities, presumably with all the comforts to which they had before been accustomed.

But the evidences of previous discoveries of a western continent, and the belief entertained by many that Cipango, of Marco Polo, might be reached by a voyage to the west, in no wise detracted from the honors won by Columbus, since results rather than accidents, theories and unimproved chances, concern us most. Many men saw apples fall from a tree before Newton observed such a natural accident, yet it was reserved for him to discover in a falling apple the law of gravitation. And if America had been visited, however often, before the time of Columbus, the honor and glory were nevertheless reserved to him of making the discovery valuable to mankind.

CHAPTER II.

SIGNIFICANCE OF HIS NAME LEADS COLUMBUS TO SERIOUS REFLECTIONS.



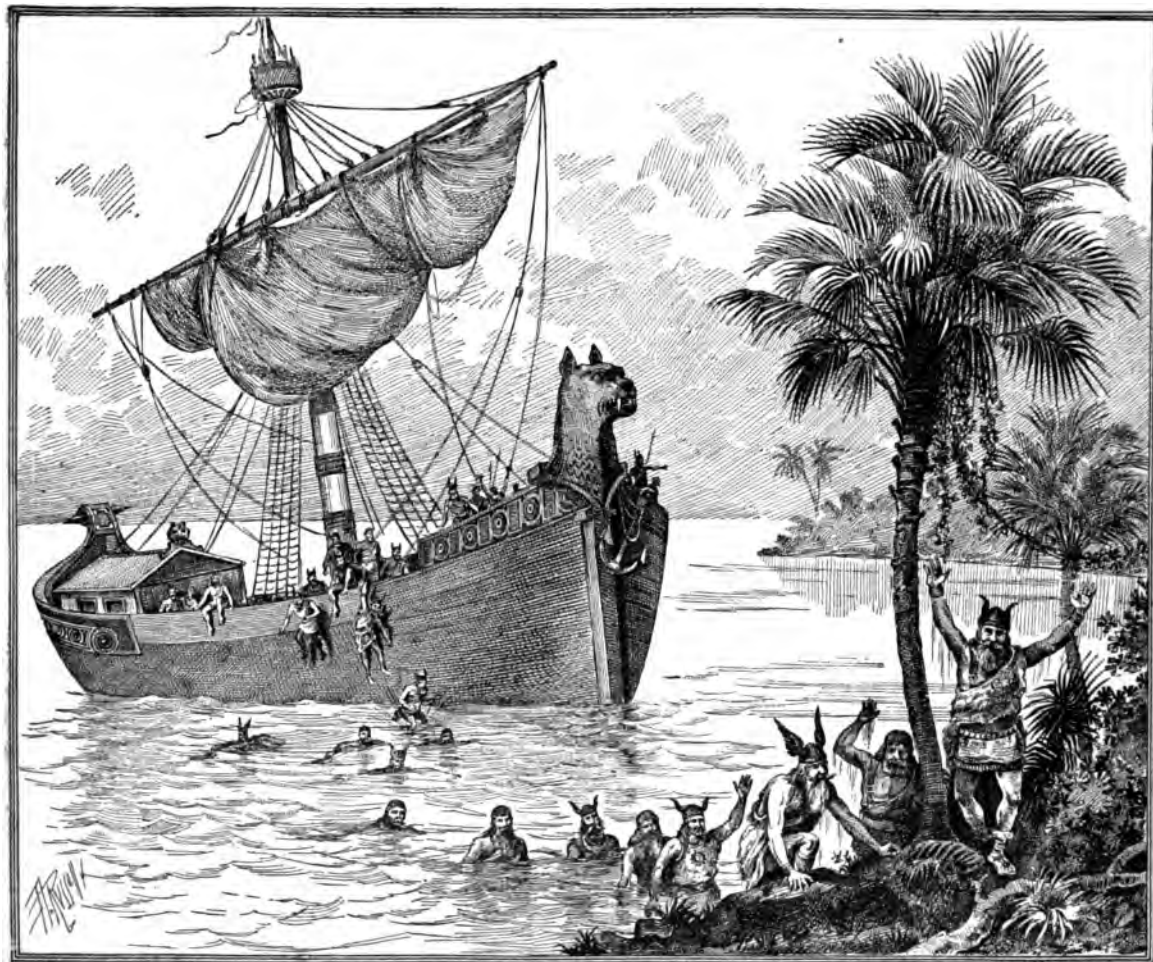
BEFORE the end of the year 1477 Columbus had become so enthusiastic in his determination to sail in quest of eastern lands that he returned with his family to Lisbon, and having obtained a ship he sailed in a northwesterly direction, by England, along the Scandinavian shores, and thence west to Iceland. Here he tarried a while with Icelandic bishops, from whom it is reasonably supposed he obtained information of the discovery of Vineland by the Northmen—the Viking Navigators—as early as the year 985. It is certain that the story of discoveries and settlements on the American shore—then called Vineland—was preserved in the Scandinavian Sagas, and all the attendant circumstances of the voyages of Herjulfson, Leif Erickson, Thorwald, Thorstein and Thorfinn were familiar through repetition of the history around the yule logs of the Icelanders,

where it was customary to recite the Sagas.

What he learned in the land of Ultima Thule of Ptolemy—Iceland—served the more to indelibly impress Columbus with the truthfulness of his theory; besides which specific information, he had observed through the philosophic instinct that was in him, the length of time it took the sun to traverse the length of the Mediterranean, and calculated time and distance so as to determine an arc of the earth and thus measure its circumference. There was practically a unanimity of opinion at this period as to the hemispheric shape of the earth, though several of the most distinguished scientists of the age had advanced the theory of its sphericity; but not a few cosmographers, and nearly all ecclesiastics, ridiculed as preposterous the idea of the earth being other than a plane capped with a dome, the edges of which marked the horizon, beyond which were darkness and possibly nameless things. To counteract so general an opinion, not wholly disconnected with pious faith, Columbus was for a time distressed for opportunity to explain his theory before influential bodies.

It is no discredit either to Columbus or the Church to venture the suspicion that, in order to obtain audiences which other means appear to have denied him, he now assumed a degree of religious devotion and intense piety which had not previously characterized his life, and that his purpose may have been to gain the confidence of ecclesiastics through whom alone, he justly reasoned, could he reach the ears of those whose assistance he required. That Columbus was a strong Catholic, by conviction as well as by birth, is undeniable, but at this time of his life there are appearances of efforts at zealous demonstrations not before noted, and a purpose may have been behind it.

Against this suspicion, however, may be opposed the equally reasonable conclusion that long brooding over his scheme had developed in him a belief that he had been divinely commissioned to carry the gospel of Christ to the uttermost parts of the world, to lands whereon the feet of a Christian had never pressed. This belief is even intimated in one of his letters, in which he refers to himself as having been designed to fulfil a prophecy of Isaiah. It is possible also that he may have been urged to this conviction by reflecting upon the interpretation of his name, in which there appeared to be a foreshadowing of the Divine intent operating through him. The family name, COLOMBO, signifies in the Latin a



LANDING OF LEIF ERICKSON ON THE SHORES OF VINELAND IN 985.

dove, indicative of purity, innocence and simplicity, and the Colombian coat-of-arms accordingly bore a device of three white doves on an azure field, beneath which were the Christian graces, faith, hope, charity. The word *Colombo* also expresses navigation, love for the sea, or the keel of a vessel; by which combination it was easy for Columbus to conceive that in his surname there was prophetic signification of an inspired man, destined to carry the gospel of purity and simplicity of heart across the ocean waters to unknown lands.

But as if to reinforce the interpretation of which the word *Colombo* was susceptible, he had been baptized in a church dedicated to St. Stephen and christened at that moment CHRISTOPHORUS, which, as De Lorgues says, was a name most appropriate for the functions

he was to discharge among men. This latter signifies a disciple of Christ, or one who bears the cross ; hence, he who spreads the gospel. To one so visionary, so enthusiastic, so quick to embrace an opinion, and so tenacious of his beliefs as was Columbus, the conclusion is unavoidable that he must have been deeply impressed by the coincidence of his ambitious conception and the signification of both his family and baptismal names.

COLUMBUS IN SEARCH OF ASSISTANCE TO CARRY INTO EFFECT HIS PROJECT.

The chronology of Columbus' acts cannot be determined, and hence the diversity of statement of his biographers as to the time and place when he first made an appeal for national assistance in furtherance of his scheme. By some his voyage to Iceland is represented as having been made before his sojourn on the island of Porto Santo, and in pursuance of information gained at the pontifical court of Rome, where, among the Vatican archives, it is declared reports were found detailing the American discoveries of Norse navigators. Others represent him as performing this journey after the rejection of his proposal to the Portuguese sovereign. In this confusion, arising from irreconcilable dates and indefiniteness of circumstances, we can do no better than attempt to relate the facts in the order in which they appear to have most probably occurred.

That Columbus was sensibly impressed with a belief in a power bestowed by special dispensation of Providence is clearly indicated by the severely independent, commanding spirit which he exhibited when appearing before the senates and courts with overtures for aid in carrying his projects into effect. It may be



COAT OF ARMS OF THE COLOMBO FAMILY.

reasonably inferred, from more than a single circumstance, that he made his first appeal for assistance before the Congress of Genoa, that being his native city, and the republic of which he had helped to perpetuate when threatened by the arrogance of Venice. But to his argument and appeals the Genoese Senate returned only evasive replies, pleading such excuses as a depleted treasury, danger of the undertaking, and the probable profitlessness of such a discovery even if made.

But, inspired by dreams of golden accomplishment, hope still lured him forward to perfect his schemes, and from Genoa Columbus went directly to the republic of St. Mark, where he laid his proposals before the Venetian Senate, hoping to make Italy the beneficiary of his enterprise ; but the council scarcely deigned to hear his appeal ; nor did it give any audience to his views and arguments. Thus rejected, Columbus went to Savone, at which place his father was now living, and where he remained only one year, but in what engagement we do not know. Thence he returned again to Lisbon, and spent the next few years drawing charts and studying the works of philosophers and historians. In the meantime his devoted wife, Felippa, died, leaving to him the care of Diego, who was now probably ten years of age. But the rejection of senates and the loss of relatives in no wise abated his ardor, for he was sustained in all afflictions by remembrance of sacrifices borne by Christ, and an inflexible belief in the inspiration of his designs.

THE SELF-SUFFICIENCY OF COLUMBUS.

Patiently abiding his time, Columbus at length thought he saw an opportunity for a



DREAM VISIONS OF INSPIRATION.

successful presentation of his purposes and desires before the Court of Portugal, as King John II. began to manifest a disposition to extend his dominions. But at no time would Columbus descend from his lofty dignity, which bore the effrontery of an affected superiority, and this seemingly supercilious air, which was really a self-consciousness of inspiration, increased the natural difficulties which attend an audience at court. He had acquired the character of a visionary, and when at length he was permitted to appear before the King, there was little to predispose him to royal favor. Perhaps he would not have been admitted to the King's presence had it not been for the antecedent relations which he bore towards Don Henry, John's father, as the son-in-law of Porto Santo's governor, and husband to a woman who had been intimate with the best society, court and others, of Lisbon. Instead of finding Columbus obsequious, which usually characterized the conduct of those seeking the royal favor, King John directly detected in the applicant a spirit of self-complacency and assurance truly astonishing, which was further aggravating to the monarch by the extravagant conditions accompanying the application. In the interview Columbus entertained no doubt that he should discover new countries rich in treasure and vast in extent. To his intense imagination everything was so real that he fancied himself already returning from a long voyage, bringing the most glorious fruits of discovery, for which service he esteemed himself as the equal of any potentate however powerful, and entitled to any reward however great. Therefore his demands were made commensurate with the deed he was about to accomplish. He would not only accept nobility for himself, but required that hereditary honors be bestowed upon his family; that he be commissioned as high admiral of the ocean, and receive a tenth part of all gains resulting from the expedition, the same to descend in perpetuity to his descendants.

The extraordinary conditions which Columbus thus imposed gave offence to John, which was increased by his peremptory refusal to accept anything less; but when the King was so far indulgent as to refer the matter to a commission, instead of instantly dismissing him as a presumptuous dreamer, Columbus felt certain that, whatever the outcome of the official inquiry, his plans had produced a strong impression upon Portugal's ruler.

COLUMBUS BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE JUNTA.

The council, consisting of Diego Ortiz Cazadilla, Bishop of Ceuta; Roderigo, the King's physician, and a Jewish cosmographer named Joseph, upon assembling summoned Columbus to explain more fully his theories and purposes. This opportunity was embraced to his greatest possible advantage, in which the great navigator set forth his beliefs and all the reasons upon which his determinations were based. His arguments seemed to prevail with Roderigo and Joseph, but the Bishop of Ceuta opposed, in the most violent manner, every theory that Columbus had advanced, and every conclusion that he had reached, and emphasized his objections by declaring that Portugal's treasury was in no condition for testing the wild vagaries of an enthusiast while Moorish infidels were threatening the nation.

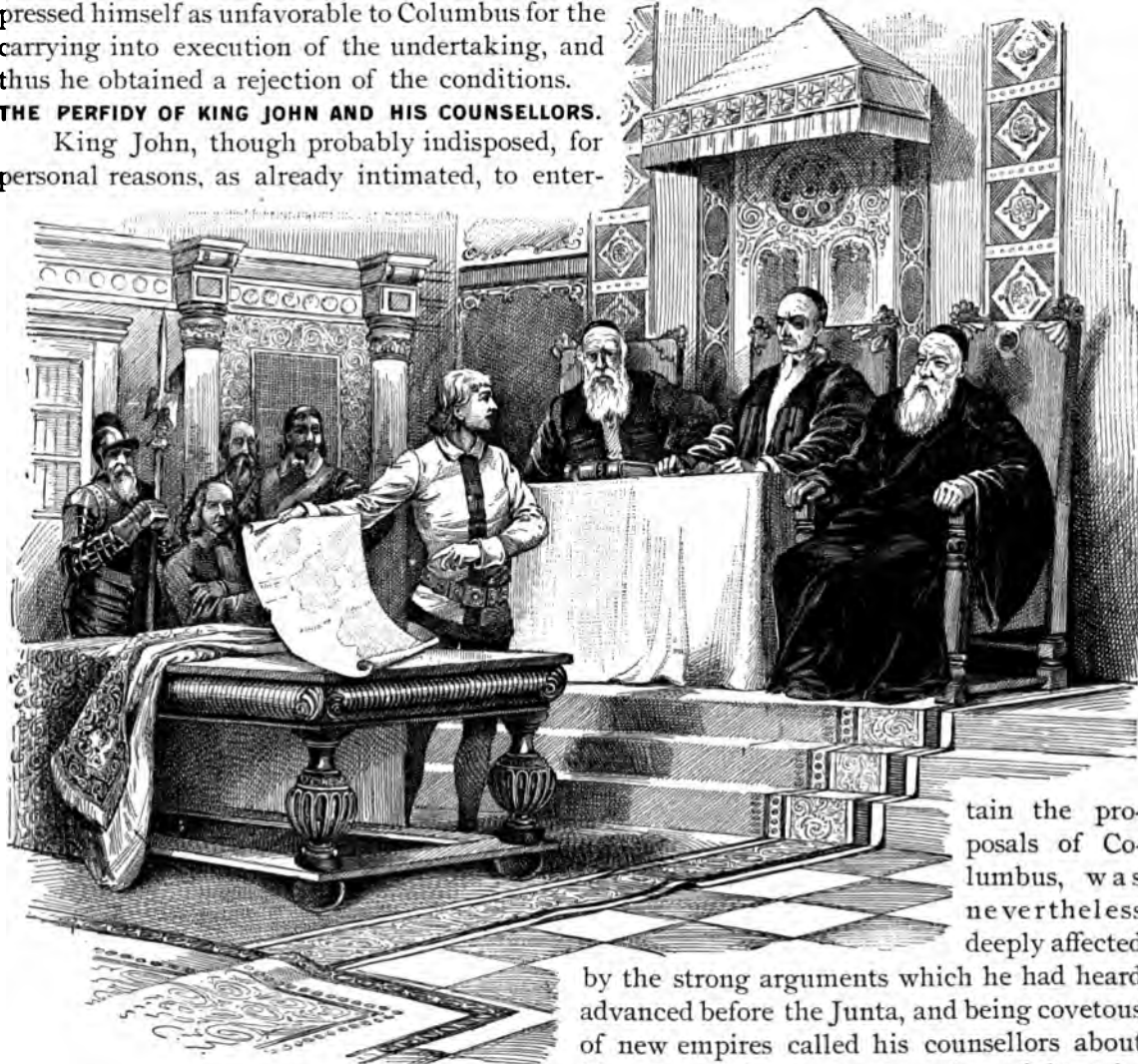
The harsh language of the Bishop inflamed Pedro de Meneses, Count of Villareal, who



was also Knight of the Order of Christ, who, having the liberty of the assembly, replied in a spirited manner to the Bishop's bigoted reflections, among other things saying: "Would it not perhaps be to refuse God, to reject this offer?" and closing with these impressive words: "Soldier as I am, but influenced thereto by a voice from heaven urging me on, I dare to foretell to the sovereign who would attempt this enterprise a happy success, which will produce a greater power and a vaster glory in the future than were ever obtained by the most celebrated heroes or the most fortunate monarchs." This speech was cheered in a manner indicative of its effect upon the assembly, but the Bishop, to counteract its effect, expressed himself as unfavorable to Columbus for the carrying into execution of the undertaking, and thus he obtained a rejection of the conditions.

THE PERFDY OF KING JOHN AND HIS COUNSELLORS.

King John, though probably indisposed, for personal reasons, as already intimated, to enter-



COLUMBUS BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE JUNTA.

tain the proposals of Columbus, was nevertheless deeply affected by the strong arguments which he had heard advanced before the Junta, and being covetous of new empires called his counsellors about him for advice as to how he might take advantage of the theories and information which Columbus had expounded, in the verity of which he implicitly believed. It is astonishing, and in no degree complimentary to human justice, and least to a church bishop and King's confessor, that at this council the Bishop of Ceuta should be chief adviser, and that his recommendations should be as unworthy as his opposition to Columbus was unjust; through the advisings of this prelate King John sent a messenger to Columbus inviting him to reappear before the commission,

which had not yet been discharged, and to present the fullest details of his project, together with all charts that he had prepared illustrative of his theory, and such information as he was able to give ; alleging as a motive for this request a desire of the commission to reopen the examination of his application and the evidences of its feasibility.

Believing in the honesty of the King and his counsellors, and greatly encouraged by this mark of interest, which to his roseate imagination foreshadowed an acceptance of the conditions named in his application, Columbus made a prompt response to the invitation and supplied the charts and information desired.

Having obtained possession of the maps, papers and evidences supporting the theory upon which Columbus based his ambitions, by the further advice of the bishop King John secretly prepared a vessel, and placing it under the command of his most experienced pilot, who was equipped with the information thus perfidiously secured, despatched it, ostensibly upon a voyage of discovery down the coast of Africa, upon a westward expedition in quest of the kingdom of Cipango, and in pursuance of all the plans submitted by Columbus. The bishop had recommended this graceless act with the venal intent of enabling the King to enrich himself without incurring any pecuniary obligations to Columbus, whom he would rob under the highwayman's excuse that his arrogance and conditions made it impolitic to grant his application.

KING JOHN'S SHIP ASSAILED BY DEMONS.

The ship which the King had thus provided proceeded first to Cape de Verde islands, whence, after revictualling, the voyage into the great unknown was begun. For a few days fair progress was made, but as the distance increased alarm grew, and when directly a terrible storm assailed the vessel, fear turned to panic, and above the rush of wind, rattle of lines, and dash of sea, there rose mad cries of distraction and prayers of despair. In every cloud there lurked a demon, every billow was the lair of monster infernal, while on the winds rode, like charge of cavalry, hosts of spectres diabolic, a marshalling of hellish powers that held mastery over the boundary of ocean waters, and resented with destruction invasion of that haunted realm. With one accord, master and crew turned about their vessel with only a faint hope encouraging them, and returned to the Portuguese port whence they had sailed.



Very soon after the cowardly voyagers regained the shore and made report of their failure to King John, to protect themselves from well-merited ridicule the officers and sailors began traducing Columbus as the author of a scheme most absurd, and which they had been so foolhardy as to so demonstrate.

News of this swaggering and contumely was not long in reaching the ears of Columbus, who now for the first time learned of the King's perfidy. With scorn and anger at the shameless conduct of both King and commission, Columbus resolved to quit a country in which venality seemed to predominate as the cap-sheaf of all the national vices. But King John did not accept the report of the voyagers as conclusive evidence of the claim that Columbus was a crazy adventurer. So far from entertaining such an opinion, he regarded the negative result as due to cowardice rather than as affording a proof that the plans of Columbus were no more than the conception of a dreamer. Indeed, the longer he contem-

plated the possibilities and probabilities of such a discovery as might be made by a voyage westward, the more inclined did the King become to lend substantial aid to the enterprise, and to make atonement for the perfidious act which he had committed through advice of his confessor. Resolved at last what he should do, King John sent a letter of apology to Columbus, in which he also pledged the resources of his treasury in support of the enterprise. But in a spirit of lofty indignation, Columbus peremptorily and haughtily refused all overtures and continued his preparations for a final removal from Lisbon, whose court he publicly denounced for its despicable treachery. The King, learning of his intentions, designed to restrain and compel him to the undertaking, but this conspiracy reaching the ears of Columbus he quietly disposed of the small property which he held in the city and took secret passage, with his son Diego, in a vessel bound for Genoa.

It was in the latter part of 1484, as all authorities agree, that Columbus took his departure from Portugal, and it was probably towards the middle of that year when he arrived at Savone, where his father had taken up his residence some considerable time before. By some of his biographers, notably De Lorgues, it is declared, that on this visit to his native country Columbus made one more appeal to the Senate of Genoa for assistance, but with no better success, and possibly with less encouragement, than attended his first application. But doubt as to this act is substantially based upon the character of Columbus, who being imperious and still impressed with a belief in his inspiration, as already explained, could not easily forget the indifference of the Senate to his original proposals; besides, just before quitting Lisbon he had sent his brother, Bartholomew, to England to lay before Henry VII. plans and purposes of his proposed expedition and to solicit the aid of that monarch, upon terms which had been offered to John II. Hence circumstances point to the conclusion that his object in repairing to Italy was two-fold, viz.: to visit his father, who was now greatly aged, and to seek there a temporary asylum from the designs of Portugal's King. And this belief is increased by the fact that his stay in Savone was certainly not less and probably more than one year, at the end of which time he turned his eyes towards the Christian monarchies, among whom he confidently believed he would, through God's help, find a patron who would give him all necessary aid to demonstrate the beneficent problem which he had proposed.



CHAPTER III.

COLUMBUS PROCEEDS TO SPAIN.



WHAT could have prompted Columbus to proceed to Spain at the conclusion of his visit to Savone only Providence can answer. He had no friends in that country, so far as history acquaints us, if we except a young married sister of his wife, living at Huelva, and if he went there in furtherance of his ambitions, his hopes must have been poorly supported, for in no other nation were the conditions apparently so unfavorable to the accomplishment of his ends. For years a fierce war had been carried on in a vain effort to expel the Moors, who held the fairest portions of Spain despite the thunderbolts of Europe to drive them back into Africa. But the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile had been united by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, in which consolidation of Christian interests the country was hopefully anticipating a victory that would destroy the last vestige of Islamism in Spain. But the treasuries of Aragon, Castile and Leon were nearly exhausted, while the two armies were upon the point of engaging in a decisive battle before the splendor-crowned capital of Granada, into which the Moors had been driven as their last resort.

Columbus, after arriving at Palos, with his son Diego, being poor in purse and ill-prepared to procure better entertainment, repaired to a convent dedicated to the Order of St. Francis, and called, in honor of the Virgin, Santa Maria de la Rabida, which stood on a high hill overlooking the sea, somewhat more than a mile from Palos. Over this convent there presided the good bishop Juan Perez de Marchena, who had been counsellor and confessor of Queen Isabella, and who was also a man much esteemed for his great learning, as well as for his exceeding urbanity and gentleness of heart, which greatly endeared him to the queen. He was both a cosmographer and an astronomer, who preferred the solitude and holy communion of the convent to the glittering pomp and obsequious homage of servile parasites that characterized life about the royal court. In the company of such a man Columbus found congenial companionship as well as a warm welcome, for the good bishop lent an eager ear to explanations of his theories and an unfolding of his plans, pregnant as they were with mighty possibilities for the advancement of both church and state.

In all the long discussions between Columbus and the prior of La Rabida there was unanimity of opinion respecting the shape of the earth, and the probability of reaching countries of the far east by sailing westward; but the means for demonstrating this belief doubtless became a subject of dispute. That the Spanish sovereigns would extend the necessary aid was problematic, considering the condition of the country at that time, when

the energies and hopes of both Ferdinand and Isabella were directed in channels leading away from all commercial enterprises.

FEUDALISM IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

In the Middle Ages next to sovereign power was feudal wealth and influence, and everywhere in Spain picturesque sites were adorned with castles defended by moats, and walls, and brazen gates, the homes of rich barons, noble dukes and successful robbers. These lordly representatives of feudal timocracy kept bands of armed servitors to protect them from invaders of their own kind, and even maintained fleets for carrying products to other ports, and sometimes to engage in adventures for spoliation on the high seas. Among the most celebrated of these lords, at the time of Columbus' visit to Spain, was the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who was one of the most illustrious nobles of Europe. His castle was as well fortified and as impregnable as Gibraltar; his wealth was equal to that of a kingdom, and the splendor of his court and equipage rivalled that of Cæsar. So enormous were his riches that more than once was his King a borrower from his bounty, and a hundred war vessels, manned by his vassals, was his contribution to Ferdinand in his war against the Moors. To this great duke did La Rabida's prior refer his guest in a letter of warm commendation, and with this influential introduction Columbus made a journey to the battlemented castle, full of hope, perhaps joyfully sanguine of the result. But dis-



FATHER PEREZ OFFERING THE HOSPITALITIES OF LA RABIDA.

appointment followed his every footstep, to confront him in the splendid halls of the rich and powerful lord. At first, excited by the boldness of his visitor's proposals, and captivated by the eloquence and force of his reasoning, which seemed to force conviction upon his willing ears, the duke was prompted to extend the aid desired, until reflecting that his sovereigns might object to such an enterprise being undertaken as a private project, he finally dismissed the subject from his mind, leaving Columbus no other resource than to return to the cloisters, where alone he had found encouragement and help.

RESOLUTION OF COLUMBUS TO APPEAL TO FRANCE.

By the solicitation of the generous prelate Columbus was afterwards induced to make his proposals to the Duke of Medina Celi, who was also a rich and powerful noble, somewhat famed for hospitality, but his appeals met with such decided refusal that, mortified by rejections of his requests, and completely discouraged by his unfavorable reception at the hands of those who were most able to help him, Columbus resolved to quit Spain and repair to the Court of France, the throne of which was then occupied by Anne, wife of Peter II., who ruled as regent of Charles VIII. during his minority.

France appeared to Columbus as presenting an inviting field for the advancement of his mighty enterprise. Under Louis XI. she had made marvellous advances, for he had crushed out feudalism and substituted autocracy for anarchy; at the same time, while centralizing his government, he gave every possible encouragement to commerce and industry. Besides this directive spirit of higher civilization Louis bestowed great favors upon the universities, and had enlarged the borders of France to almost their present dimensions, and on his deathbed, in 1483, begged that the policy of his administration be continued by his successor.

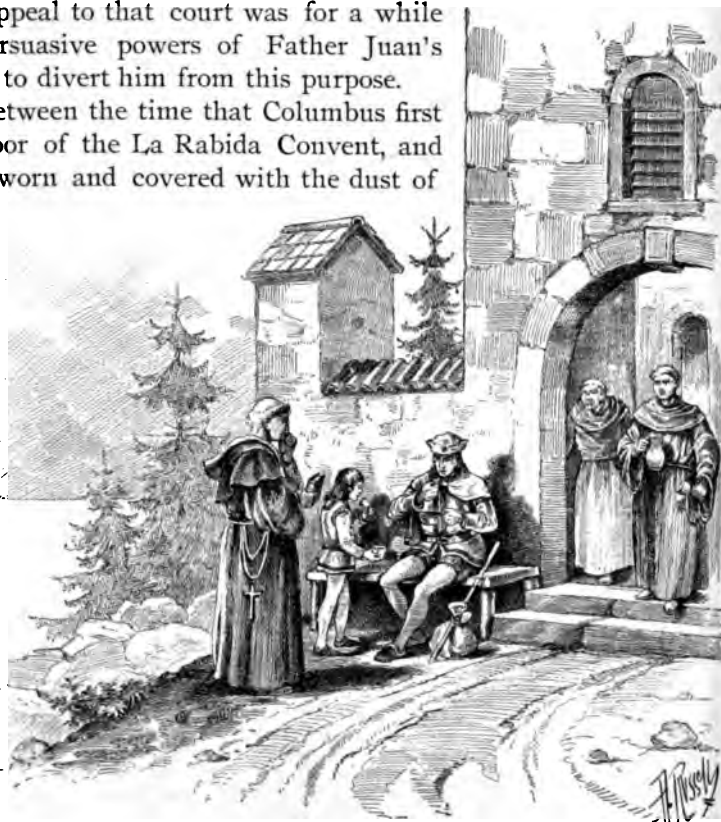
Charles VIII. was only thirteen years of age when his father died, and was poorly fitted both by youth and training to assume the duties of an active ruler ; so that Anne, his aunt, Duchess of Bourbon and sister of Louis XI., was declared regent, and for nine years acted, by the king's last instructions, as guardian of Charles. So prudently did she manage the government that she destroyed the last vestige of feudalism, asserted the power of France against Brittany, practically placed Henry of Richmond on the throne of England, and by other brilliant successes received the title "Madame la Grande." Her army was the largest in Europe, her treasure the richest, and her ambition for the glory of her country the greatest ; the circumstances and conditions, therefore, seemed to particularly favor Columbus in France, and his resolution to appeal to that court was for a while so firmly fixed that all the persuasive powers of Father Juan's eloquence were scarcely sufficient to divert him from this purpose.

Several years had passed between the time that Columbus first appeared before the hospitable door of the La Rabida Convent, and when he returned dejected, care-worn and covered with the dust of travel from his unsuccessful visit to the Duke of Medina Celi ; but he was not discouraged, for there was still in him a feeling of inspiration which urged him on like a good angel guardian, by reminders of how others had suffered before gaining the great end of their beneficent missions.

Scarcely was his hunger satisfied at the generous board of the convent when Columbus unfolded his plans to the bishop of presenting his proposals to the French Court, and recited his reasons for expecting a favorable response. To these Father Juan opposed all his influence, and eloquently

pleaded with his guest to reserve his intent until other chances for giving the glory of his discoveries to Spain were tried. Thus persuading Columbus to remain for a while at the convent, Father Juan summoned a learned physician of Palos, named Garcia Hernandez, who promptly responded and added his inducements and encouragements to those of the Franciscan Father. Several other influential persons of Palos directly appeared at the convent and joined their efforts with those of Hernandez and the prelate in devising means for gaining the attention of the Spanish sovereigns and securing their assistance in promoting the project of Columbus.

The result of the long and frequent consultations at the Convent of La Rabida was not without substantial, though not immediate, benefits. When the time for his departure from the monastery was at hand Columbus received from Father Juan a sum of money and a cordial letter of earnest recommendation addressed to the Prior of Prado, Ferdinand de Tala-



COLUMBUS AND HIS SON AT THE CONVENT OF LA RABIDA.



A GOLDEN DAY-DREAM OF COLUMBUS.

vera, who was then confessor to Ferdinand and Isabella, whose mediation it was believed would give him a favorable reception at court. Not being in a condition to properly provide for his son, Columbus left Diego in charge of the charitable Franciscans, who generously clothed, fed and educated him for a number of years.

SEEKING ROYALTY IN THE CAMP.

Columbus set out hopefully for Cordova, and arriving at the court confidently presented his letter, but instead of meeting a cordial reception the prior haughtily, even disdainfully, scrutinized him, nor would even give ear to his representations.

At the time of Columbus' visit to Cordova the Moors, who once held dominion over the entire Iberian peninsula, had now been driven by the victorious Spanish to make their refuge in Granada, about the borders of which an exultant army was eagerly pressing. The city of Cordova was therefore the centre of military activity; trumpets filled the air with their blaring notes, companies of cavaliers rode through the streets full armored, and all the chivalry of Spain was in uniform.

It may with justice be admitted that destiny looked with favor on Columbus in recommending him to such a personage as the queen of Castile. Isabella was now in the prime of womanhood, being in her thirty-fifth year. As a woman she was beautiful, the effect of which was increased by a dignity and grace that became her as a sovereign. Her temper was amiable, her judgment prudent, and as a wife she subordinated her royal prerogatives to love and duty, for her affection for Ferdinand was sincere. Though her rights as queen of Castile and Leon were unabridged by marriage, she nevertheless diligently sought to assimilate her will and purpose with that of her husband, though she could not fail to perceive that of the united kingdom she was at once the light and glory.

Not less than the King was Isabella concerned in the nation's ambition to expel both Moors and Jews from Spain; and her enthusiasm in this effort prompted her to spend much of her time in the Spanish camps, inspiring her soldiers to deeds of valor. In summer the court was held at Cordova, but in winter the King and Queen repaired to their palace at Salamanca, at which place Columbus was first able, after a delay of many months, to meet any of the dignitaries of the royal household. His first acquaintance of advantage was with Alonzo Quintanilla, comptroller of the treasury of Castile, who gave a patient audience to Columbus, and who became a valuable convert to his views. Through the comptroller Columbus was introduced to Antonio Geraldini, ambassador of the Pope, and to Alexander, his brother, instructor to the princes and princesses, both of whom became deeply impressed with his theories, and lent him their heartiest encouragements.

SECOND MARRIAGE OF COLUMBUS.

Though Columbus had made progress in the diffusion of his plans, and won over to his project the sympathies of many distinguished persons in Spain, whose influence with the sovereigns was pronounced, opportunity for presenting his application to either the King or Queen was still wanting. In the meantime the money charitably given by Father Juan was expended, and pressing want gave him no other alternative than a return to his profession of cartographer for a living. In the year which had now elapsed in persistent effort to gain the attention of the court the mind of Columbus was diverted by a love episode, which



proved that amid all his deep concerns his heart was not so absorbed with ambitions for glory but that it was still susceptible to the influence of a woman's eyes and blandishments. In Cordova there were many beautiful *senoritas*; in fact, the city was famed for the comeliness of its ladies; fair graces that wore the smiles of Venus, the form of Diana, and the ravishments of Helen. To one of these, Doña Beatriz Enriquez, Columbus surrendered, and lived with her for many years, but whether this union was consecrated by hymeneal bonds is a question which historians have vainly debated; but true it is, that when, in 1487, this lady bore him a son, Columbus not only acknowledged its paternity, but had the child christened Fernando and bestowed upon him ever afterwards the same marks of legitimacy that he did upon his other son, Diego. Indeed, Fernando filled a larger part of his father's life than did Diego, as he was entrusted with the most important



concerns and became his father's biographer, transmitting to all ages the story of Columbus, his defeats and triumphs, and at the last hour was by his bedside to receive his blessing and to close his eyes for that final rest which he had won by the most distinguished services, but which had been least required. •

COLUMBUS OBTAINS AN INTERVIEW WITH THE ARCHBISHOP OF SPAIN.

After years of waiting, years of disappointment, years of alternating encouragements and humiliations, it fell to the good fortune of Columbus at last to meet, through the courtesy of Quintanilla, the great archbishop of Toledo, Pedro Gonzalez de Mendoza, whose influence at the Spanish court was ascendant, in so much that he was principal counsellor of the King and Queen in all matters concerning either peace or war. In some respects he resembled the most distinguished of French cardinals, Richelieu, for he was at once soldier and statesman, and, being dignified with age, his manners were also chivalrous and captivating. The first audience which Columbus had with this great ecclesiastic was not entirely satisfactory, as a proposal of his scheme brought upon Columbus the archbishop's suspicion that the theories submitted contravened the doctrines of the church, and that an assertion of the earth's sphericity was rank heresy. But he was not so bigoted as to be wholly obdurate, or impervious to reason, and before the eloquence of Columbus, pleading his ambition to spread the gospel of Christ among heathens of unknown lands, he was compelled to manifest the greatest interest. We may well imagine the zeal of the adventurer in this, one of the many supreme hours in his career. He must have appeared as one inspired to the sedate cardinal, whose intelligence could not fail to apprehend the cogency of the argument, and the sincerity of the advocate. Glimpses also of the magnificent prospect held forth and lighted by the torch of Columbus' imagination were caught by the venerable Mendoza, and he yielded to the appeal in so far as to promise that he would procure for Columbus a hearing before the Queen.

In fulfilment of his agreement the archbishop did introduce Columbus at court, but instead of meeting Isabella he was ushered into the presence of Ferdinand, whose cold, cynical nature was not improved by lack of decision, and an illiberality that bordered on penuriousness. It must also be remembered that an audience with majesty is an ordeal through which one may pass only by an exhibition of mingled courage and humility—the courtli-

ness of a knight combined with the awe of a peasant. But notwithstanding these disquieting conditions, which might render the most resolute nervous and misgiving, Columbus, as if encouraged by some occult power, in proof of his claim to have been sent of Heaven to perform a wondrous work, poured into the King's ears matchless arguments in support of



ARCHBISHOP MENDOZA INTRODUCING COLUMBUS TO FERDINAND.

his theory, and pictured in words of extraordinary zeal and confidence the kingdoms which must lie beyond the line where the horizon kisses the expanding sea.

THE CONGRESS OF SALAMANCA.

In one particular the interest of Ferdinand was aroused. The recital of Columbus had covered his experience at the court of the King of Portugal, and Spain was at enmity with Portugal, which rendered Ferdinand sensible to any plan which promised to embarrass John. Therefore, in so far as the prospect of advantage was opened by the proposals of

Columbus, the Spanish monarch was willing to extend his assistance, if by so doing he might anticipate the Portuguese in reaching India by a western route. But over this selfish incentive the coldness and parsimony of his disposition prevailed; but instead of dismissing Columbus, he withheld final decision until opinions of the learned men of the kingdom, as to the feasibility of the project, could be obtained.

In pursuance of the expressed intentions of Ferdinand he appointed a commission of several learned men of Spain to consider the theory and proposals of Columbus, at the head of which was placed Ferdinand de Talavera, whose chilling reception, as already described, gave small hopes to Columbus of a favorable determination; Rodrigo Maldonado de Talavera, Mayor of Salamanca, and a cousin of the archbishop, was appointed secretary of the congress, who shared with his distinguished kinsman the bigotry and prejudice which he had evinced at the first meeting with Columbus.

The congress which Ferdinand thus called together convened at Salamanca, which was the seat of all Spanish learning, but still distinctly mediæval and intensely ecclesiastical. The chairs of its great university were occupied by the most learned scholastics of Europe, and on its registry were sometimes enrolled more than eight thousand students. But church influence dominated everything in Spain; the professorships were held by priest, bishop, or cardinal, so that all instruction was poured through the sieve of ecclesiasticism, and only that which could pass through the meshes was accepted as true. Thus we perceive that in the time of Columbus both the intellectual and moral life of Spain was subordinated to the purposes of the church. So supreme was prelacy that not even Ferdinand and Isabella could free themselves from the thralldom which it had imposed. This being the intellectual condition of the nation, the professors of its greatest university were ill-prepared for original investigation, and the Junta which had been assembled was not more advanced in thought, nor liberal in their views, than the mass of the religious monitors of that age, who took scrupulous care that science should not invade the precincts of the church. To pass the established bourne, to trench upon unexplored realms, to venture a scientific explanation of the simplest phenomenon of nature, was to startle and shock the whole conservatism of ecclesiasticism.

COLUMBUS BEFORE THE SPANISH JUNTA.

The assembling place of the congress was the Dominican Convent of St. Stephen, and the time very early in January, 1487, but the members of the commission cannot be determined, as the records were long since destroyed, if, indeed, they were ever preserved. When Columbus was called to present his arguments before this learned body of scholastics, he surely could not extract inspiration from the promises which their every aspect revealed.

But notwithstanding all the discouragements which confronted him, Columbus arose before his critics in the large conference hall of St. Stephen, firm, determined, statuesque. The occasion had arrived when his supremest nature must be exhibited; when all the powers of his mental endowments must be brought into display; when diffidence and doubt must give way to pluck and persistence; when courage and confidence must be harnessed by the will to ride through the ranks of prejudice and all opposing environment. With this undaunted spirit Columbus addressed the bearded Junta. At first only the Dominican friars, composing a part of the audience, gave him respectful attention, but as he progressed his zeal grew vehement and words of startling import fell in streams of eloquence from his lips. Gradually he began to make an impression, favorable upon the least bigoted, but antagonistic to the greater number, and these latter flung at him, by way of interruption, puerile objections to his theories, opposing, with weak derision, the evidences presented of a world

beyond the gloomy ocean. The Scriptures—as they have been used alike to defend and impeach in every great moral question that has arisen to divide society—were appealed to in disproof of the claims of the Genoese navigator. Texts were quoted by the dignitaries, each smiling, after the manner of his kind, to think how the upstart philosopher was brought to bay by the levelling stroke of authority. The Book of Genesis served the opposition, while others quoted the Psalms and the prophecies and the New Testament writings as conclusive evidence of the falsity of Columbus' conclusions. But these being controverted, the Junta, who were also church fathers, introduced opinions of St. Chrysostom, St. Augustine, St. Jerome, St. Gregory, St. Basil and St. Ambrose in proof of the flat shape of the earth, and that circumnavigation was therefore impossible. Lactantius Firmianus, who wrote in the fourth century, was also appealed to, whose opinion that the earth is a plane was piously and elaborately set forth in a work which he entitled *De Falsa Sapientia*—an insight into deceptive things.

A REJECTION OF HIS SCHEMES.

Columbus confidently quoted, in support of his theory of the earth's sphericity, such classical authorities as Pliny, Strabo, Seneca and Aristotle, and also read many passages from the Bible which appeared to refer to other lands than those then known. And thus was the conference turned into a commission of disputation, which resulted, as it had begun, in a division of opinion respecting the earth's shape. Some there were, chiefly the Dominican monks, who believed the world to be globular in form, but these opposed the claims of Columbus, that India might be reached by a voyage westward, by declaring that the very fact of the earth's rotundity would prevent the possibility of a ship's returning if it ventured beyond the equatorial line; for, said they, the globe being spherical, must fall away in all directions. How, therefore, they argued, could one who had sailed beyond the rim, down the convexity of the world, be able to sail back up the slope, which must be like ascending a hill? Terrestrial gravitation was not known at this time even by Columbus, so he could only offer a refutation of this argument by reciting his own experience in a voyage along the coast of Guinea, below the equator, where he observed nothing to prevent a ship from sailing north or south.

But while some of the assemblage were converted to his views, notably friar Diego de Deza, professor of theology, Columbus was vehemently opposed by an overwhelming majority of the council, who submitted their report in writing to the King and Queen, declaring that the project was "vain and impossible, and that it did not belong to the majesty of such great princes to determine anything upon such weak grounds of information."

While the commission was resolving the evidence, and before a verdict had been reached, the Spanish Court left Salamanca, first proceeding to Cordova and thence to the seat of war in Granada, leaving Columbus waiting for the judgment of the conference, which, however, he believed would be unfavorable. Upon announcement of the report Columbus was much distressed, but his discouragement was directly relieved by a message from the sovereigns, who in a few words gave intimation that, regardless of the finding of the congress, they were not disposed to wholly abandon the project, and might give him necessary aid when the war, in which they were now engaged, terminated.

RENEWAL OF HIS APPEAL TO KING JOHN.

With this small encouragement upon which to hang his hopes Columbus followed the King and Queen, first to the siege of Malaga, where he was a witness to the surrender of that stronghold, and thence, owing to a plague breaking out in the captured city, to Sara-

gossa, Valladolid, and to Medina del Campo. But heart-sick at length, through want of opportunity to press his project upon the Spanish sovereigns, he resolved to turn his attention towards some other country. Under the pressure of want and disappointment he even so far forgot the indignity put upon him by the Court of Portugal that he wrote to John II. asking of that monarch if he was still willing to promote his scheme of discovery. A prompt reply was returned, in which John addressed him as "dear and particular friend," and invited him to court, promising to protect him against any suits, civil or criminal, that might have been instituted against him. There is in this cordial letter of invitation and assurance an intimation that Columbus had been guilty of some criminal act during his residence in Lisbon, but if so neither history nor tradition has preserved to us the offence.

Almost directly upon the receipt of the letter from King John there came to Columbus a communication from Henry VII. of England, requesting him to come to that country under agreement to give him encouragement and support. Columbus might have accepted one of these two kindly proffers but for the persuasions of Ferdinand de Talavera, who had been appointed Archbishop of Avila, and, though a strong opponent to Columbus, was instructed by Isabella to temporize with him so as to prevent his departure from Spain until she could familiarize herself more perfectly with his theories and proposals. The new motives which the adroit archbishop held out induced Columbus to exercise his patience a while longer, and continuing with the court he saw the investment and final capture of the city of Baza, and the surrender of Muley Boabdil, one of the Moorish kings of Granada. Another year was thus spent, and when at length he demanded, through Talavera, a decisive reply to his request as to what the King and Queen would do with his proposals, the same answer was returned, that the Spanish treasury was not in a condition to give assistance to his enterprise.

Columbus was fairly overwhelmed by this disappointment, and first acquainting the archbishop with his intentions, he quitted Seville, thence went to Cordova, and from that city set out for the convent of La Rabida. In the meantime, by direction of the Queen, another committee of scholars was appointed in Seville to investigate and report upon the feasibility of his schemes, which, after a brief sitting, confirmed the conclusions of the Salamanca Congress, thus seemingly destroying the last hope he entertained of assistance from the Spanish sovereigns.



CHAPTER IV.

MATERIAL HELP FROM AN UNEXPECTED SOURCE.



RESPONDENT, forlorn, weary, and withal indignant, the sorrow-crowned navigator bent his footsteps towards the one asylum whose doors stood open to give him a joyous welcome, and extend such comforts as he had not found in the splendid but cheerless courts of kingly palaces, or baronial halls. If the Church in her blindness branded him as an unworthy adventurer, it was no less the Church that greeted his return from a barren mission, and assuaged his melancholy with regalement of hospitable consolation.

The purpose of Columbus in returning to La Rabida monastery was no doubt to take leave of, or to provide for the future maintenance of his son Diego ;

but his reception was so cordial that he was persuaded by Prior Juan to remain awhile and recruit his energies and spirits, which had been nearly expended in his long and futile quest of aid at the Spanish

Court. The devoted Father, Juan Perez, not only administered to his physical requirements, but infused Columbus with courage to bear with resignation the slights and disappointments which now weighed so heavily upon him. The Palos physician, Garcia Hernandez, whose scientific attainments made his opinions particularly valuable, came to the monastery with greater frequency now, and added his influence to that of the prior towards inducing Columbus to renew his efforts with the Spanish Court, provided with further recommendations which they would endeavor to supply. But it was decided to await the result of the field operations in Granada, which promised a decisive victory for the Spanish arms.

When at length the time appeared auspicious, the Father Superior, whose former confessional relation to the Queen justified him in making a personal appeal for consideration, wrote a lengthy letter to Isabella, commending the project of Columbus as one of extraordinary importance, worthy of her majesty's patronage, and as one promising the mightiest results, alike beneficial to the nation, to the world, and to the glory of God. But appreciating the enmity, and above all the bigoted prejudice of the Court's counsellors, instead of transmitting this letter through a church functionary, who might prejudice its effect, he confided his communication to Sebastian Rodriquez, who was not only a noted pilot, but a man of polished address and with some experience in court etiquette. This devoted messenger lost no time in making the journey by mule to the camp in Granada, where he delivered the letter directly into the hands of Isabella, and received the thanks of the Queen for his service. While the proposals of Columbus had been presented to Ferdinand, and by him twice referred to a college of scholastics for investigation, the letter from Father Juan was the first direct appeal to Isabella, and subsequent events proved that to this fact it is not unreasonable to attribute the disappointments and delays which Columbus had for more than seven years suffered.

So captivated was the Queen by the prospects glowingly pictured by Father Juan, that she sent Rodriquez back to the convent of La Rabida with an invitation to the prior to visit



COLUMBUS' FIRST INTERVIEW WITH FATHER PEREZ.

her at the camp for a personal conference on the subject of his letter.

We may imagine the joy with which Columbus and his good friend received the invitation and report brought to them by the pilot messenger, in which there appeared hopeful signs of an early consummation of their ambition.

In the hurry to respond to

the Queen's request, Father Juan borrowed a mule from his friend Jean Rodriquez Cabezuda and set off at midnight, through midwinter's snow and bitter cold, for the new city of Santa Fé, which was one hundred and fifty miles from Palos, where the sovereigns now had their court. He made the journey in safety, though the route was infested by marauders and Moors, and though fatigued by the exertion, yet so anxiously was his mind possessed with the mighty scheme of Columbus, that without waiting for refreshment he immediately sought the Queen's presence. She received him with every manifestation of the tenderest regard, and to his eloquent pleadings gave the most encouraging audience and promises. At the conclusion of the interview she charged the enthusiastic father to bring Columbus to court, and that he might appear in more seemly garb than his impoverished condition had previously permitted, she gave the prior an order on a maritime broker in Palos for twenty thousand maravedis,* with which to provide Columbus with a mule, a suit of clothes and necessary travelling expenses.

CAPTURE OF GRANADA.

Prompt to respond to the royal summons, for he was felicitated by the promise which the invitation implied, Columbus, with bound-



* The value of a maravedi is difficult now to fix. Webster defines it as a copper coin introduced into Spain by the Moors, and as having a value equal to about one-third of a cent, American money. De Lorgues, however, estimates the value at .018 cent; Helps, at .0154 cent, while others fix the value at from one-half to two cents.

ing heart, set out, through the vales and over the mountains of Andalusia, for the court of Santa Fé, where he arrived in due season to be a witness to the surrender of Granada, the last Moorish stronghold in Spain.

What a wondrous scene was there presented, as the crescent banners, that had for nearly eight hundred years floated from the walls of the inconceivably beautiful Alhambra, were torn down and supplanted by the cross-bearing flags of Ferdinand and Isabella. This momentous event occurred on Friday, the 30th of December, 1491, and three days later, Boabdil el Chico, the Moorish King, bowed with subjection before their Catholic majesties and delivered to them the keys of the city.

The occasion was now one of such great national rejoicing that the Queen could not give Columbus a reception such as she had designed, but referred him as a guest to Alonzo de Quintanilla, his friend, who was Intendant-General of the finances. Four days later, or on the Feast of Kings, the two sovereigns made a picturesque processional entry into the far-famed city of the Moors, at the gate of which they were received by the archbishops of Granada and a numerous clergy, chanting hymns of thanksgiving.

The triumphal rejoicings were not yet concluded when Isabella sent a messenger summoning Columbus before her, thus illustrating the favor in which she estimated his schemes



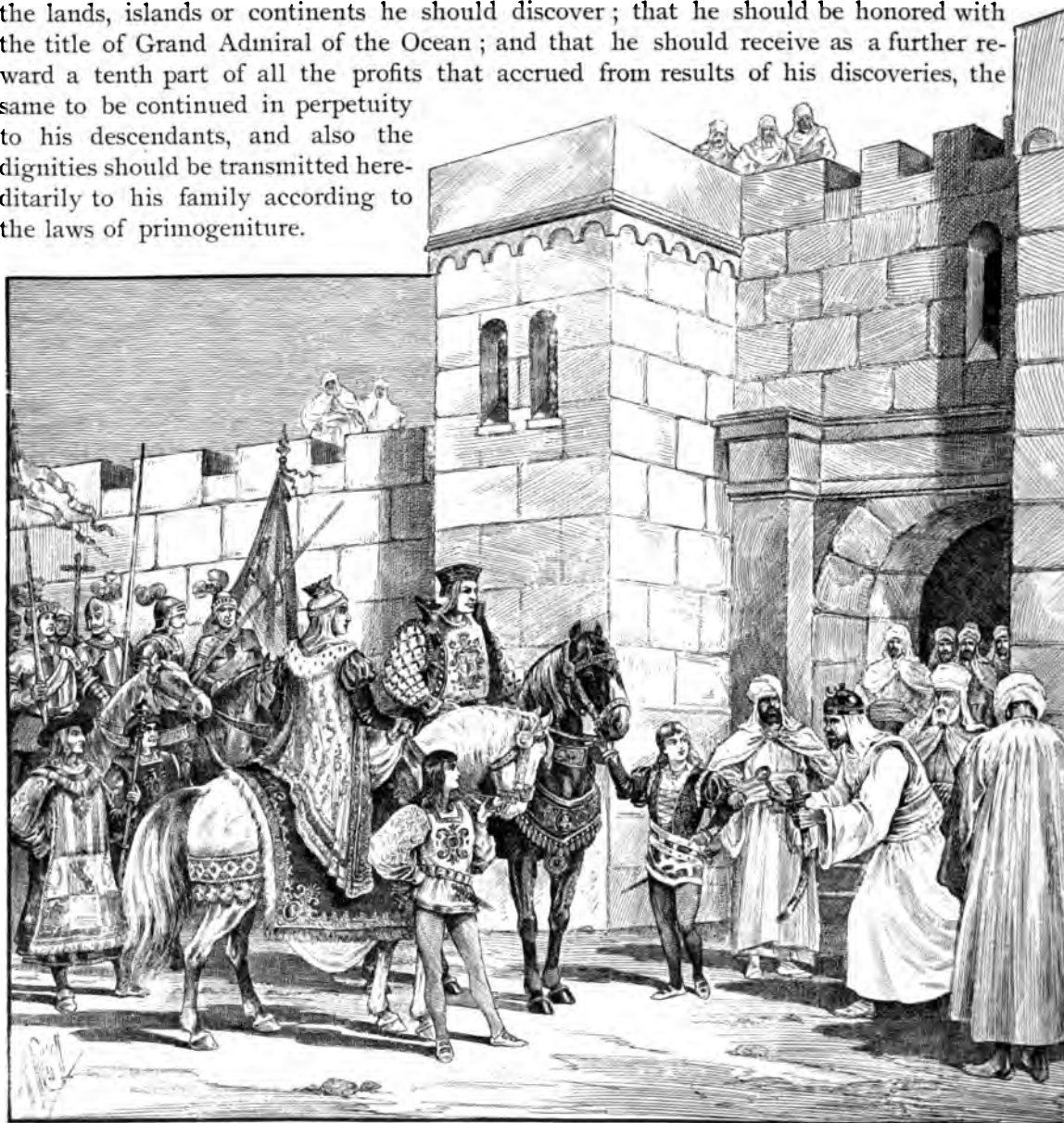
ARMY OF ISABELLA BEFORE GRANADA.

for exploration, and the decision she had made in her own mind to promote his purposes. The audience which followed was a brief one, for scarcely giving him time to explain his plans, the Queen told Columbus that she would accept his services and desired that he attend upon a meeting of her commissioners, over which Fernando de Talavera presided, to arrange the terms. The impoverished appearance of Columbus, the rebuffs which he had suffered, the long pleadings that had remained unanswered, might have been expected to render him anxious to accept any conditions, and being a foreigner, with nothing but his theories to com-



FATHER JUAN'S NIGHT JOURNEY TO GRANADA.

mend him, which two congresses had pronounced visionary, the commission anticipated that he would gladly accept any terms, however illiberal. Imagine their surprise when he submitted, as his proposals, these stipulations: That for his services he should at once be raised to the dignity of viceroy; that he should be appointed governor-general of all the lands, islands or continents he should discover; that he should be honored with the title of Grand Admiral of the Ocean; and that he should receive as a further reward a tenth part of all the profits that accrued from results of his discoveries, the same to be continued in perpetuity to his descendants, and also the dignities should be transmitted hereditarily to his family according to the laws of primogeniture.



SURRENDER OF GRANADA TO FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

When these imperious demands were received by the commissioners, they were not only shocked, but so indignant as to give expression to their feelings, characterizing such proposals as presumptuous in the extreme and insulting to the dignity and wisdom of their sovereigns. But Columbus was as inflexible in his demands now as he had been before the Portuguese Junta, and he stubbornly refused to relax his demeanor, or abate one tittle of the terms which he had submitted.

His insistence, hedging his agreements, was communicated to the Queen in a report recommending a rejection of his proposition, the committee reinforcing their conclusions by declaring that since the scheme had been twice before adjudged chimerical, its failure under national patronage would expose their majesties to the mockery and derision of all Europe.

THE SUN GOES DOWN UPON HIS HOPES.

The report of the commission carried the matter before the highest counsellors of Ferdinand and Isabella, where it was fiercely debated, particularly by its opponents, who sneeringly insisted that, as an adventurer, Columbus showed great foresight, for whatever the outcome of his project, he would gain for himself titles which the nation could not well afford to bestow upon an obscure foreigner, and the honor of a distinguished position which had cost him no more than a bold and persistent effort to obtain. But before these scoffers and traducers Columbus had one valorous and devoted defender, Alonzo de Quintanilla, who against these arguments interposed his opinion that the demands made by the great navigator were not exorbitant, considering the services that he was to render; for if he gave new kingdoms to Spain he was entitled to commensurate benefits, and if the conditions as submitted were taken as an indication of insincerity, he would undertake to promise that Columbus would provide one-eighth of the expenses for a like part of the advantages that would be gained by the proposed expedition.

The circumstances under which Quintanilla was able to make this proposition are not exactly clear. By some it is maintained that the offer was made upon his own responsibility, growing out of a determination to advance such a part of the expenses from his own private funds in case the proposal met the sovereigns' approbation. But by a majority of the Columbian biographers it is asserted that the proposal was made in pursuance of promises given by Martin Alonzo Pinzon, a rich shipowner of Palos, who held frequent interviews with Columbus at the monastery of La Rabida, and who became an enthusiastic convert and promoter of his scheme.

But for the time the persuasion of Ferdinand de Talavera prevailed, for as Ferdinand expressed unqualified aversion to the proposal, Isabella was brought to conclude that the terms were too illiberal, and therefore with much reluctance abandoned the negotiations.

This conclusion was the severest blow that Columbus had yet received. His strong imagination and hopeful disposition had filled his days and nights with wondrous visions; already he felt himself the discoverer of inconceivably rich kingdoms, over which he was ruler with princely authority; and from the opulent revenues derived therefrom he foresaw himself able to gratify his one great central ambition, to equip and lead a vast army against the infidels of the Holy Land, from whom he would wrest the sacred sepulchre, and plant the cross of Christ in every vantage place of the world. A sudden awakening from this blissful dream to the melancholy reality of his true condition; a wanderer upon the earth, carrying his beneficent scheme in his heart, like a peddler weighted down with a pack of merchandise seeking a purchaser, fairly broke his spirit, strong as it was, and left him to gloomy reflection on the unappreciativeness of those in whose hands reposed the power to advance the cause of Christianity and promote the welfare of humanity.



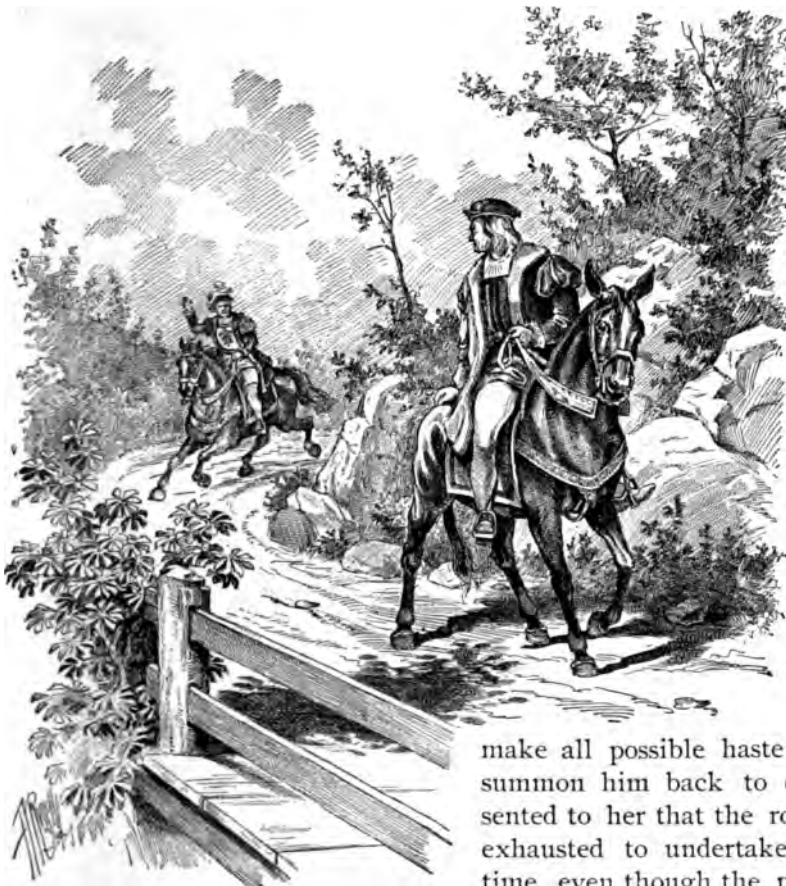
COURT OF THE LIONS,
ALHAMBRA.



QUEEN ISABELLA IN HER ARMOR.

DAYBREAK OF JOY OVER THE MOUNTAIN OF DESPAIR.

With soul bursting with disappointment, Columbus turned away from Granada, and set out on his mule for Cordova, his mind resolved on taking an affectionate leave of his wife, and then quitting Spain for France or England, whither the small hope left seemed to lead him. Scarcely had he taken his departure, possibly before, when Luiz de Santangel, receiver of the ecclesiastical revenues in Aragon, hastily sought the Queen, and with irresistible eloquence pleaded with her to recall Columbus, and not to permit, through ill consideration and unworthy influence, the opportunity which he had offered her to magnify her glory to go by unimproved, to the immeasurable gain of some other nation, which, with



COLUMBUS RECALLED BY ORDER OF ISABELLA.

acute foresight, would be certain to accept his proposals. While Santangel was thus beseeching the Queen, Quintanilla suddenly and with great anxiety, bent as he was upon an identical mission, appeared before Isabella and added his persuasions in no less ardent speech. The effort was beneficently successful. Rising to the occasion, as if God had miraculously influenced her to prompt and decisive action, she declared that she would undertake the mighty enterprise for the glory of the crown of Castile, and a moment later she despatched an officer of the guards, commanding him to

make all possible haste to overtake Columbus and summon him back to court. Talavera had represented to her that the royal finances were too nearly exhausted to undertake such an enterprise at that time, even though the promise of success was flattering; but the Queen, fired now with the same zeal

that had inspired her two enthusiastic counsellors, declared that if necessary she would pledge her jewels for the funds required to equip the expedition. Santangel, however, assured her this would not be necessary, as he was prepared to advance the money needed out of the revenues of which he had charge, feeling certain that he could obtain the king's authorization for the loan. Thus it was that the acceptance of Columbus' proposals were brought about at a time when he had abandoned all hope of aid from the Spanish crown.

The messenger overtook Columbus about six miles from Granada, just as he had passed over the bridge of Pinos, a place celebrated by more than one desperate and bloody encounter between Christians and Moors, that served to make it almost sacred in the annals of Spanish history. So frequent had been his disappointments, and so distrustful was he

of the motives of sovereigns, of which he had been many times the victim, that Columbus hesitated about obeying the summons, until persuasion overcame his first promptings and he returned, though not without misgivings. Scarcely had he gained the outskirts of Granada, however, when his doubts were dispelled by the friends who came out to receive him, and the magnificent reception accorded him by the Queen, who was now anxious to



COLUMBUS IN PRIVATE AUDIENCE WITH ISABELLA.

make some amends for the chilling conduct of the court towards him during the seven painful years that he had been an applicant for its helpful recognition.

THE QUEEN MAKES TERMS WITH COLUMBUS.

Queen Isabella, holding in her exclusive right the crowns of Leon and Castile, henceforth became the patron of that great enterprise which gave to the world a new continent; and the measure of its magnitude now unfolding itself to her mind, she accorded to Colum-

bus that deference which confident belief in his success appeared to her to warrant. But Ferdinand, who held the crown of Aragon only, continued both doubtful and suspicious, and withheld his sanction, even exacting a return of any moneys advanced out of the treasury of Aragon in aid of the scheme, and only gave his signature to acts of the Queen through her intercession, not as a voluntary performance signifying his approval.

The articles of agreement and letters-patent conferring titles and privileges were signed on the 17th of April, 1492, but it was not until a month later that Columbus took leave of the Queen and started for Palos, which port had been determined upon as the embarking place of the expedition. In this interval there were daily conferences between Columbus and his royal patroness, arranging the preliminaries and issuing orders, providing for the equipment of the vessels. On the eighth of May, as a special mark of her favor, the Queen appointed Diego, the eldest son of Columbus, who had lived at the monastery of La Rabida for seven years, to the position of page to the Prince Royal, with a pension of what was equal to about \$150.00 annually.

Columbus left Granada on the 12th of May and proceeded to Cordova, where he took leave of his wife, and then posted to Palos with all the necessary orders, among which was one that required that municipality to furnish two caravels, armed and equipped, and to place the same at the disposal of Columbus within ten days. His arrival at that city was greeted by Father Juan with great joy, who continued to the end to encourage his enterprise and to promote his comfort.

When it was learned that the schemes and theories of Columbus were about to be put into execution, and that their demonstration was to be attempted by a voyage into the vast unknown, the people of Palos were seized with a panic of unconquerable fear. From this port not only were the ships to sail, but it soon became known that there would be an impressment of sailors to make up the complements of the vessels, for few would volunteer their services for what was regarded as the most desperate enterprise ever conceived by foolhardy man. We smile at the fear of these simple people behind the setting sun of the nineteenth century, but in the darkness of ignorance that shrouded the middle ages we can find more than enough to excuse the bravest hearts for quailing before the terrors with which story, legend and imagination had invested the realm of the boundless sea.

HORRIBLE SPECTRES OF THE UNKNOWN SEA.

Science was but a puling infant, and the small knowledge that the world possessed of physics and chemistry was born of the alembic by accident, with the hated Arab as its procreator. Thus science was regarded as the offspring of Satan, a hellish thing to be abhorred by godly men; a malevolent product of fiend and Erinnyes, whose development was viewed with deadly alarm. The compass was scarcely yet become a guide to mariners over the trackless seas, and horoscope was more potential with superstitious minds of the time than all the philosophy of cosmographer, sage or scientist. In fact, cosmography helped to create and spread belief in the existence of frightful things peopling the Stygian world of the sea. Beyond the flaming gates of the west, where the sun sank down in his billowy bed, there were whirlpools in which Leviathan sported, and there stood as sentinels over the ocean's vast domain monsters more hideous in aspect, more appalling in size, than the dragon that guarded the marriage apples of Juno. On the charts of some cosmographers there was a representation of the sea, *Mare Tenebrosus*, around which were reputed to live, in a wanton exuberance of horrific terrorism, such conceptions of a fearful imagination as griffins, hippocentaurs, gorgons, goblins, hippogriffs, krakens, sea-serpents, unicorns, sagittaries, minotaurs, chimeras, hydras, and other prodigies of nature run riot with monstrosities.

ARABIC CONCEPTION OF THE MONSTERS THAT HAUNTED THE SEA.



ARABIC CONCEPTION OF THE MONSTERS THAT HAUNTED THE SEA.

But more direful, ghastly, terrifying than all these was the Arabic conception of the fearful dangers that beset the gloomy ocean. Before this tropical imagination arose the gnarled, horrent, portentous hand of Satan, out of a tenebrious waste of boundless waters, with hooked claws, blood-thirsty maw, and purpose damning, to grasp any luckless ship that might venture within his infernal dominion. And this belief spread quickly among all maritime peoples, until pagan and Christian alike possessed it. To these conceits others were added, being importations from countries of the farther east, brought back by such travellers as Mandeville and Polo, and received with confidence to swell the fears of humanity. These pictured the air filled with demons, clouds charged with furies, and islands haunted with wraiths, who, holding the elements within their control, could at will lash the sea into madness, provoke the wind into hurricane, arouse the lightnings of heaven into wrath, and launch all these infuriate powers against vessel and crew, overwhelming with a destruction dolorific, tragical and harrowing, every venturer within these forbidding realms.

From these calamitous fears may not be omitted other beliefs no less terrorizing. The sages of Salamanca voiced only the prevailing opinion of all Christendom when, in opposing the plans of Columbus, they contended that even if the earth were round yet there could be no life at the antipodes; that along the equator was a wall of heat so fiery as to be all-consuming, a very hell of flame as unquenchable as the sun; while beyond lay a sloping plain over which was carried every movable thing towards changeless fields of ice that gathered into mountain peak around the southern pole.

A GENERAL CONSTERNATION SEIZES THE SAILORS OF PALOS.

Considering these general alarms, there is no surprise in the fact that when Columbus arrived at Palos, with orders from Isabella to impress vessels and sailors for his expedition into unknown seas, he found both ship-owners and seamen seized with consternation, and not a single caravel in the harbor that was available for his service. They had attempted to avoid the requisition by disappearing from the port. This condition of affairs caused additional delay, and being reported to the Queen she sent an officer of the royal guards to exact a penalty of two hundred maravedis (nearly \$3.00) a day upon every ship-owner who should delay or refuse to execute the orders of Columbus. At the same time she issued a permit authorizing him to seize any sailor who might be found on the Spanish coast and compel his services. But neither of these orders was effectual in facilitating preparations for the voyage, nor was any substantial progress made until extremity prompted the officer of the royal guards to forcibly take possession of a caravel called the *Pinta*, the property of two citizens of Palos, named Roscon and Quinten. These two owners became violent in their abuse of Columbus, and the entire town seemed to be upon the point of an uprising. In this disturbed condition of the populace, which threatened serious consequences, Father Juan appeared and exerted his influence to change the critical situation into one favoring the schemes of Columbus. A man universally loved for his amiability and charity, his opinions were equally respected because of his learning and piety. He strove to dispel the fears of the sailors by decrying the baseless superstitions of the age, and by appealing to their courage in the name of the Church, which now called for their services. He promised them God's blessings in the great work which foreshadowed the extension of Christianity among heathen people, and declared that they should account themselves as elected by God for the enlargement of His kingdom. After prevailing with sailors, the noble father sought shipowners and used his persuasion to induce them to fulfil the orders of the Queen. Among those whom he best knew in Palos were three brothers named Pinzon—Martin

Alonzo, Francis Martin, and Vincent Yanez,—and to these he applied his exhortations to lend Columbus such vessels as would serve his need. The eldest of these, Martin Alonzo, had, as many biographers agree, been introduced to Columbus during his long stay at the monastery of La Rabida, and manifested such interest in his project as to acknowledge belief in his theory and to give a conditional promise of assistance. Now, when Father Juan brought the Columbian plans, so well formulated and promoted by the Queen, before the elder Pinzon, that experienced navigator promptly offered his aid, not only as a mariner, but in converting opinion from the prejudices that seriously threatened, even at this juncture, the success of the enterprise. Through Pinzon, the Pope (Innocent VIII.) was even brought to give his approbation to the scheme, and thus the Church, that at first opposed the enterprise, through the Spanish ecclesiastics, became a supporter of Columbus, though only by friendly encouragement. Martin next secured the co-operation of his two younger brothers, and the three presently signed an agreement with Columbus under which they were to provide another vessel, the *Niña*, and to take service in the expedition, whilst the youngest advanced one-eighth of the expenses, though under circumstances not exactly known.

The Pinzons were wealthy ship-chandlers in Palos, and their position gave them great influence, especially among seamen; and through their exertions the city was at length induced to appropriate a third vessel, which bore the name of *Gallega*. She was classed as a carack, a large ship such as the Portuguese afterwards used in their trade with India. She was old, and otherwise unfit for the service, but in the scarcity of ships, and the difficulties that had already long delayed Columbus, he did not hesitate to accept her; but as a propitiation to God, and to place the vessel under His special protection, he changed the name, in honor of the Blessed Virgin, to *Santa Maria* (*Saint Mary*), and made her the flagship of his little squadron.

EQUIPMENT OF THE FIRST EXPEDITION.

The Pinzons gave their personal attention to the details of the equipment, but it was not until the end of July that crews were obtained and the ships made ready for departure on the long and perilous cruise. The expedition was composed of two caravels, *Pinta*, commanded by Martin Alonzo Pinzon; the *Niña*, in charge of Vincent Yanez Pinzon; and the carack, *Santa Maria*, upon which Columbus embarked as admiral. It has long been a general belief that these were very small and unserviceable vessels, hastily put to sea and with imperfect equipment. So far from this being true, the three vessels were among the largest that sailed the Mediterranean or visited the Canaries; and while no doubt ill appointed when they came into the hands of the Pinzons, these navigators were too prudent and experienced to venture on so long a voyage without first putting their ships in the most thorough condition. The vessels were also well provisioned for a year's voyage, and supplied with the most effective fire-arms of that period, but the working crews were composed of a riff-raff of criminals and adventurers, anything but promising, though over these most experienced and influential officers were appointed.

The records are sadly incomplete, but from what has been preserved we are able to obtain a good idea of the composition of the fleet, though the exact number of men that completed the force is not known. On the *Santa Maria* there sailed a nephew, by marriage, of Columbus, whose name was Diego de Arana; also Pedro Guttierrez, keeper of the stores; and Rodrigo Sanchez de Segovie, controller of the armament; Rodrigo de Escovedo, register of the proceedings, or royal notary; Bernardin de Tapia, historiographer; Pedro Alonzo Niño, first pilot; Barthelemy Roldan, Fernand Perez Matheos, and Sancho Ruiz, respectively second pilot, mate and boatswain; Ruy Fernandez, and Juan de la Cosa,



THE FIRST VIEW OF AMERICA.

sub-officers, filling various positions; Luiz de Torrez, a Christianized Jew, held the post of interpreter, for which his knowledge of Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, Coptic, and Armenian well qualified him. Juan Castillo, a gold and silver smith, from Seville, was the official mineralogist, but his appointment to that position was unfortunate, because he knew little or nothing about metals except in their refined state. There were also two surgeons, called Alonzo and Juan, their surnames never having been recorded in the proceedings certified to by the royal notary. Among the crew was an Englishman who passed under the patronymic of Tallerte de Lajes, which is not translatable, because it is a double family name, thus leaving the suspicion that he had adopted it to conceal his identity; there was also an Irishman, called Guillemia Ires, or, in English, Billy Rice; two Portuguese, and one native of the Balearic Islands—in all, sixty-six persons, not a single one of whom, however, was from Palos.

On the other hand, the crew of the *Pinta*, numbering thirty men, were, with a single exception, viz., Juan Rodriquez Bermejo, all from Palos, those whose names have been preserved being Francis Martin Pinzon, brother of Martin Alonzo, the captain; his cousin Juan de Ungria; Cristobal Garcia; Garcia Hernandez, the celebrated physician and his nephew, of the same name, who served him as secretary. In addition to the crew there were several passengers, who accompanied the expedition as adventurers, or as representatives of commercial houses anxious to extend their trade with the rich country of Cathay.

The *Niña*, being the smallest of the three vessels, had a crew of twenty-four men, besides as many more passengers, who were willing to brave the dangers to earn the great rewards which they thought would be reaped in case the voyage proved successful. And it may be truthfully declared that every one who accompanied the expedition confidently believed he would find a country where gold abounded in such quantities that ships might be loaded with the precious metal, and thus each would return enriched almost beyond the power to compute. This idea was therefore the dominant ambition among all who ventured upon the voyage, save alone that Columbus expected to win honors more durable than wealth, though his, too, was an inspiration for the acquisition of great treasures as well.



CHAPTER V.

DEPARTURE FOR THE UNKNOWN WORLD OF THE SEA.



FROM sorrowing friends on shore Columbus and his followers took their departure amid bestowal of blessings, waving of adieus, and cries that proclaimed the fear they would meet them nevermore, while Father Juan and Garcia Hernandez watched from the convent window with anxious solicitude and prayerful hearts the fading sails that bore away their friends toward a new world.

And what a day on which to begin such a dangerous voyage! Among all peoples of Christendom, and particularly among sailors, Friday has been always regarded as a day of evil, and for ages has the superstition survived that nothing begun on that day can succeed, save it be the hanging of a man; and so murderer's day is hangman's day. And yet Columbus chose it, believing that instead of the day being accursed, it had been blessed by holy sacrifice; by the crucifixion that brought redemption; by Godfrey de Bouillon's victory, that delivered the Holy Sepulchre; by the recovery of Granada from Islamism, and the redemption of Spain from the profaners of Christianity. So, at the early hour of three o'clock on the morning of August 3d, 1492, the Columbian fleet raised anchor and under a favoring breeze moved majestically out of the harbor, through the mouth of the Odiel river, and soon the chiming bells from Huelva's steeple, fainter and fainter growing, were lost on the ears of the sailors.

A sailing chart for the expedition had been prepared by the Admiral himself after Toscanelli's map, which represented the kingdom of Zipangu as occupying the position of Florida. This error arose from the estimate of a degree of longitude, which, as previously explained, made the world of nearly all the cosmographers of the middle ages about one-third less than its actual size.

The route, as marked out, lay by the way of the Canary Islands, thence with a south-westward swoop directly west, and over this way the fleet passed more than a thousand miles further to find land, than if the voyage had been made due west from Palos.



THE FLEET OF COLUMBUS.

In the beginning the weather and wind were auspicious, but these favoring conditions, instead of inducing encouragement, operated adversely upon the minds of the sailors, whose

uneasiness grew greater as the distance from their country increased. Towards the end of the third day out discovery was made that the steering gear of the *Pinta* was disabled, and examination disclosed the fact that the owners from whom the vessel had been impressed, had maliciously fixed the rudder so that it would break under force of the waves. Fortunately the accident occurred when the wind was fair, though the ocean was rough, and as Pinzon was a resourceful commander, he soon had the damages repaired, and the vessels proceeded.

On the morning of the sixth day the Canaries were in sight and a landing was made at Gomera, where all the vessels were overhauled, several defects having been detected, so that it was not until the 9th of September following that the fleet got again under way.

DANGERS OF FACT AND FANCY.

Meanwhile, a serious danger had arisen from the hostility of Portugal. The news of the sailing of Columbus had spread along the Spanish coast, and soon reached Lisbon. The reader will remember how, through all his years of waiting, Columbus had at intervals renewed with the court of Portugal, as well as with the court of England, an intermittent correspondence. It was evidently his intent to hold these powers in reserve against the ultimate defeat of his proposals in Spain. As soon as King John heard how at last the voyage of discovery had been actually undertaken under the patronage of his rivals, his animosity was so great that he resolved to resort to the most desperate expedient to thwart the enterprise. In

pursuance of this despicable resolution, he hastily fitted and sent out an armament to arrest, and if necessary to destroy, the fleet of Columbus. While his vessels were undergoing repairs at the Canaries, the admiral learned from a caravel just arrived from Ferro, an island of the group, that the Portuguese fleet was making ready to put to sea in pursuit. This news induced him to hasten his departure, but scarcely had he got under sail when an eruption of the volcano of Teneriffe threw the sailors into a panic of terror, who saw in the shooting flames, and heard in the rumbling explosions from the heart of the mountain, Tophet bursting through the sea in awful portentive of a horri-



FATHER JUAN AND GARCIA HERNANDEZ WATCHING THE DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS.

ble fate to which they were being surely drawn. Columbus was finally able to assuage these fears of his crews by explaining to them the frequent eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius, which people had long ceased to dread. But for three days there was a calm, during which they had not progressed more than three leagues from their last anchorage, and all the while expecting to see Portuguese ships heave in sight in pursuit. That they did not appear is presented as an evidence in support of the assertion that Portugal did not send a squadron to interfere with Columbus or his expedition.

When at length the good sea breeze swelled the sails again and the voyage into the great unknown was renewed, loud cries of complaining fear broke from the sailors, who now felt themselves adrift on the boundless flood where

"All delicate days and pleasant, all spirits and sorrow were cast ;
Far out with the foam of the present, that sweeps to the surf of the past ;
Where beyond the extreme sea-wall, and between the remote sea-gates,
Waste water washes, and tall ships founder, and deep death waits."

COWARDLY FEARS OF SUPERSTITIOUS SEAMEN.

Possessed of an extraordinary imagination, fortified by sincerity, Columbus appealed alike to the courage and avarice of his clamorous and intensely superstitious sailors. He assured them constantly of God's blessings, for that they had been called in a most righteous service which must redound to the glory of themselves in that life everlasting. But when their religious fervor languished, Columbus told the men of wealth which they would acquire in the land to which they were sailing, where gold and precious stones so abounded that houses might be built and streets paved with either. He undoubtedly believed this to be true himself, and his own conviction was thus the more effectively impressed upon those to whom he recited these prophecies of incredible treasure in the land to which they were bound.



Columbus, while chimerical in many things, was nevertheless subtle in contriving against the mutinous spirit of his men, and his shrewdness is shown by many wise expedients. He had delivered, with becoming gravity, an opinion that the country of Zipangu would be gained by a sail of something more than 700 leagues to the west, but lest his belief prove ill-founded, and that the voyage might, if necessary, be prosecuted much farther, he kept two log books, in one of which a false reckoning was recorded, representing the distance made each day as less than it really was, while the other was prepared with great accuracy to serve as a guide for future voyages. The former was daily exposed to all on board for inspection, while the latter was carefully preserved under lock and key. The sailors were thus deceived into the belief that their progress was extremely slow, and that the slope of the earth must accordingly be very small, if indeed it were perceptible, and that a ship before the wind could in any event overcome it and return to Spain.

BLESSED SIGNS OF APPROACHING LAND.

On the 14th of September, while the vessels were sailing in close company, a large main-mast was observed floating on the water, evidently out of a ship considerably greater in size than the *Santa Maria*. Columbus at once hailed the relic as a favorable omen, but the effect on the sailors was panicky. Here, indeed, was a part of a ship that had preceded them, but to their timid minds it came as a warning of the doom that awaited them ; as a proof that no vessel could survive the dreadful dangers which lurked in cloud, wind

and wave in the region where damnation held dominion. About the same time Columbus discovered that there was a variation of the magnetic needle, which increased as he proceeded farther west, and while he tried to keep the knowledge of this fact from his crew, the pilots soon detected it and then consternation was a hundredfold increased. What possessed the compass? Was it some invisible power that was turning the needle from its true direction in order to lead them into some whirlpool, or bring them within the influence of other destructive agency? So serious did this phenomenon appear, that Columbus was himself greatly disturbed by it, but he contrived an explanation which partially allayed alarm, but it may be added that while the fact is now universally known, science has not yet been able to determine positively the cause.

Now the vessels entered the region of the westward trade winds, which urged them along at an increased speed, naturally arousing new fears, but these were directly quieted by the sudden appearance of two birds, one a Mother Carey chicken (petrel) and the other a wagtail, which it was erroneously believed never ventured a great distance from land. Following this supposed indication of an approaching shore, on the same night the crews were again plagued to distraction in beholding a flaming meteor swiftly speeding across the sky and plunging into the sea five leagues distant from the ships. The men at once accepted this as a signal from heaven heralding their quick destruction, but Columbus regarded it as a holy beacon, and as a presage of the certain triumph which awaited the expedition.

Thereafter every natural condition was favorable to a happy passage; the sky was serene, the winds steady from the east, sending the vessels ploughing the waves in their westward course, and the ocean was as peaceful as a babe sleeping on its mother's breast. Under the balmy fragrance of the healthful air the mind of Columbus became roseate with blissful reflections. "If we only had the song of the nightingale," he writes, "we might well believe ourselves ashore among the waving groves, and near the flower-scented gardens of Spain."

SPECTRES OF A COWARDLY IMAGINATION.

On the 19th of September a mist showed on the sea undisturbed by wind, which was taken as a precursor of land, and on the Friday following other evidence that the shore lay not very far beyond was presented by a mass of weeds into which the ships thrust their bows. A booby bird came sailing by to increase the illusion, and many fishes sported about the vessels, some of which were harpooned, affording a sportive divertimento that was intensely animating. But the weeds became more dense and tangled, until they grew into an imposing barrier to farther progress and aroused the sailors to a sense of new dangers more appalling than they had before conceived. Here, thought they, is the boundary of the world, the interdict God has placed upon the passage of mortals. Once within the remorseless fingers of this verdant sea extrication will be impossible; famine seemed to show its hideous head; thirst pointed its pale fingers towards their quivering lips; in this turgid lake of damned engorgement, green with the life of death, livid with the slime of corruption, may be the haunt of the kraken, whose palpy arms could embrace a ship to its destruction; on this great prairie of the ocean must live the hundred monsters that played such a part in the sea-tales of the age, browsing off an herb-age that poisoned every other living thing. Under its slowly pulsing bosom there may be deadly reefs to grind away the bottoms of the ships, or sandy bars to hold them until storm, lightning or waterspout could complete their annihilation.

But still, the ships drove on through this Sargasso sea of impediment, until at last

a passage was accomplished, but with this abatement of fear a new alarm arose over the invariable wind that day after day impelled them westward, until belief became fixed that return was impossible. No reason that Columbus could command would give the crews encouragement; despair was followed by a mutinous and murderous spirit; many of them being criminals, whose punishments were remitted to this service, they began to clamor for a victim; to openly murmur their seditions against Columbus, who might have

fallen before their vengeance had not an adverse wind begun to blow at the most auspicious moment, as if to prove the unreasonableness of their apprehensions.

On the 23d of September, Martin Alonzo Pinzon mounted the high stern of the *Pinta* and shouted with joy, "Land! Land! I declare my right to the pension." Others were equally certain that they saw land, whereupon there was an excitement of uncontrollable delight among all the crews, until in a little while they perceived that what was taken for land was only a thick bank of clouds, and the despondency which succeeded was the greater for this momentary enthusiasm.

Complaints of a violent character were renewed, and Columbus became, in the eyes of the sailors, a braggart, humbug and fraud, whose own nation would not recognize him who had deceived the Spanish sovereigns, and whose blind persistence would drive them to destruction. They accordingly favored a submission to him of the alternative of turning back or being cast into the sea. The Pinzons were



VISION OF THE SPECTRE-HAUNTED SEA.

cognizant of this mutinous spirit, but held themselves aloof from either encouraging or reproving it, but this inaction proved how strong had grown their prejudice against Columbus because of his refusal to turn aside in quest of islands which the Pinzons believed lay near by, to the north.

A MUTINOUS SPIRIT.

From time to time cries of "land" were made, but every such announcement proved delusive, and finally the long pent-up torrent of fear, envy, and hatred broke, in which even the Pinzons joined. The united demand was for an immediate return; all authority was dissipated, the crews were now a mob, and before this maddened body of infuriate

men Columbus was powerless beyond the influence of his persuasion, which, however, commanded respect when his orders would have incited a swift vengeance. To these howling caitiffs, therefore, he appealed, in the name of the holy image that was emblazoned on the royal flag which floated from the mast of the *Santa Maria*, to their courage as men, to their cupidity as slaves of avarice, and at last begged them to renounce their evil purpose, or give him three more days in which to seek the land for which they had set out amid the prayers of their nation. This request was finally granted and the disaffected men went back sullenly to their several posts of duty.

On the following day evidences that land was not far away began to multiply, while the wind increased to push the vessels more rapidly forward. A green rush was seen by the crew of the *Santa Maria*, and almost immediately after the look-out on the *Pinta* observed two sticks which had been evidently fashioned by human hands. Those of the *Niña*, who were like vigilant in their watch, were favored by the sight of a green bush bearing clusters of red berries, all of which several indications that land was near revived the spirits of the crews, and good humor and delightful anticipations took the place of fear and rebellious feelings. Seeing that the men were now in an amiable frame of mind, Columbus ordered a hymn (the *Salva Regina*) to be sung, and then, after discoursing to them on the manifestations of God's protecting care throughout the voyage, elated them beyond measure by predicting that land would be discovered before another night was ended. He also charged them to be particularly watchful, and promised to reward the one who should first perceive the shore with the gift of his beautiful velvet doublet, which was trimmed with gold lace and considered a thing of great value. This premium was to be given in addition to a pension of ten thousand maravedis (\$36.00), promised by the Queen to the one who should first see the land of the new world.

Every one on the three ships was now so excited with expectancy that there was no desire to sleep; each was anxious to earn the double reward, and all were alike curious to catch a glimpse of the unknown shore.

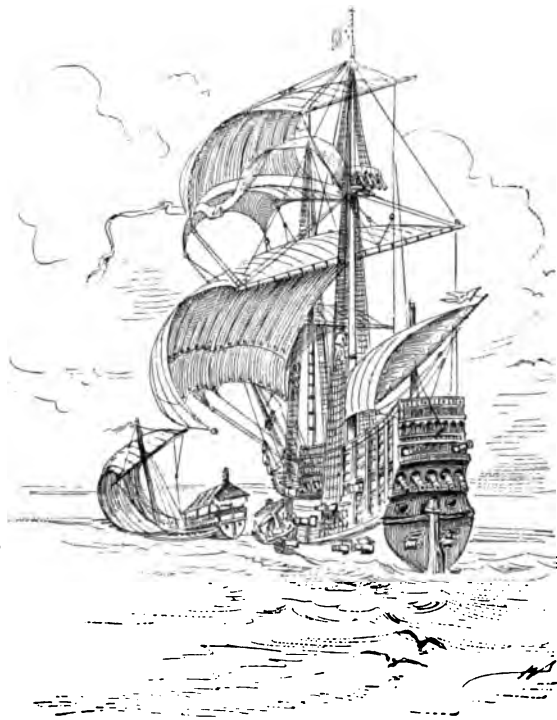
LAND! LAND!

About ten o'clock that night, as Columbus was watching from the poop-deck of his vessel, his searching eye caught the gleam of a moving light in the distance. Not fully satisfied of his vision, he called two others to watch, and they also beheld the same glorious beacon; but then it faded and was seen no more. Word passed quickly from ship to ship, and the watch by all became more vigilant. Sails were shortened, but wind and current still gave them a goodly pace, and thus they pressed on until two o'clock in the morning of Friday, October 12th, four hours after Columbus had seen the fitful light, when a cannon shot from the *Pinta*, which was a league in advance of the *Santa Maria*, gave loud-voiced proclamation of the discovered shore; whereupon every one fell down in worshipful attitude and lifted their voices in holy praise and thankfulness. Juan Rodriguez Bermejo had been the first to discover, through the haze of approaching morning, the high lifting banks of a land on the western boundary of that gloomy ocean which had held the secrets of infinity, and become in the minds of men the representation of a boundless immensity.

The men who had been moved by mutinous disposition two days before were now prostrate in homage before the commander whose life they had threatened; from condemnation they lifted their voices in adulation; from an intensity of depression, from a prostration of dread alarm, they were suddenly become jocund, ready to embrace all the world, so great was their delirium of thankfulness. In avowing their obligations to Columbus, they would also do penance for the crime of their evil machinations; and having no

better gift to bestow they would acknowledge him as the first discoverer of land, thereby giving to him the fullest meed of honor, and refute the claim of the common sailor Bermejo. And to the astonishment of all mankind, the pension which he manifestly did not earn, in his thirst for all the glory, ambition-mad, he took to himself; a reward that in all justice belonged to the poor sailor whose lot was so humble he could not defend his right.

What was the light that Columbus indistinctly saw? The *Pinta* was at least three miles ahead, and none of her crew saw it; may it not, therefore, have been flashes from some taper on board that vessel? Indeed, since the distance from land must have been at least fifteen miles, no one from the ship's deck could have perceived an object on the flat shore because of the convexity of the earth. It is also possible that the light which Columbus saw emanated from a canoe which may have been passing from one island to another, as it was a very common custom for islanders to carry fire upon a fire-place of clay laid in the centre of their canoes. In fact, the fluttering light was not regarded by Columbus as reliable evidence of the proximity of land until after a cannon-shot from the *Niña* gave announcement of Bermejo's discovery. And yet he claimed and possessed himself of the pension, to which the poor sailor alone had any just right.





COLUMBUS, 1492.

COLUMBUS TAKING POSSESSION OF THE NEW WORLD.

CHAPTER VI.

LANDING ON THE BOUNDARY OF THE NEW WORLD.



UNDER the spell of a wondrous enchantment, a vision as glorious as that which broke upon the vision of Sir Galahad, revealing the Holy Grail of his pious search, was the beatific view presented to the longingly expectant crews when the light of morning broke upon the scene! There before them lay a stretch of landscape marvellous for its diversity of yellow sands, softly lapping surf, swelling undulations in a stretch of opalescent mists; flowery groves that breathed a fragrance like incense to advancing day; blue waters of a lake peeping in gladness through forests of lofty evergreens, while along the beach, or resting in awesome admiration beneath broad-sheltering trees, were a hundred specimens of an alien race, tawny, sun-browned, symmetrical, disapparelled, gazing with bewildering surprise at their celestial-appearing visitors.

In the fair view before them, whether it were the shores of Zipangu, or other lands of the blessed, there was eagerness to press its bosom; but with becoming precaution the ships were first placed in a state of defence, and then each member of the expedition arrayed himself in corselet, tabard and helmet, and with such weapons as match-lock, pike and cross bow, prepared to take possession of the beautiful land. Columbus, however, wearing the dignities of Grand Admiral of the ocean, and Viceroy of all the lands he should discover, presented a spectacle which might well impress even those familiar with court regalia and imperial vestments, for he clothed himself in the richest raiment procurable in Spain, provided before his embarkation in anticipation of a meeting with the Great Khan of Tartary. Above the scarlet mantle that covered his shoulders, he bore the royal flag, on which was emblazoned the image of Jesus Christ, and taking his position in the bow of the first boat, started for the inviting shore. Immediately behind him came the yawls of the *Niña* and *Pinta*, bearing their commanders, each of whom supported royal standards of Castile on which were displayed the letters F. and Y., initials of the sovereigns, Fernando and Ysabel.

With lusty arms the rowers pushed the boats rapidly towards the shore, nearly a league from the anchorage, where a landing having been made,* with a solemnity befitting so thankful an occasion, Columbus planted the standard of the cross and the flags of Spain in the yielding sands. This done he lifted his voice in a prayer, only the first accents of which have been preserved by history, while those about him fell upon their knees with offerings of thanksgiving: "Lord Eternal and Almighty God! Who, by Thy sacred

* Billy Rice, the Irishman, is said to have been first to leap on shore, carrying out the line with which to make the yawl fast.



LANDING ON THE SHORE OF SAN SALVADOR.

word, hast created the heavens, the earth and the seas, may Thy name be blessed and glorified everywhere. May Thy Majesty be exalted, who hast deigned to permit that by Thy humble servant Thy sacred name should be made known and preached in this other part of the world." Having thus made his obligations to God, he gave to the island the name of San Salvador (Holy Saviour), and then took possession of it in the name of the Lord Jesus Christ for the Crown of Castile. A large cross, made from limbs of a tree, was next set up to mark the landing site, and then efforts were made to communicate with the natives, who stood off at a considerable distance watching with fear and trembling the actions of their strange visitors.

INTERCOURSE WITH NATIVES OF THE NEW WORLD.

By signs of amity, and a proffer of presents, Columbus at length induced some of the bolder to approach, whom he so graciously received that their companions directly came forward, and an agreeable intercourse was presently established; but as their language was not understood by any of Columbus' men, communication was conducted entirely by means of signs. By these, however, it was learned that the island upon which landing had thus been made, was called by the natives, *Guanahani*. Subsequent investigation proved that it was one of a considerable group afterwards named the Bahamas. The imperfect knowledge acquired by Columbus, and especially the indefinite description which he gave of the island has been the cause of much dispute respecting the exact land which he first discovered. While a majority of authorities maintain that San Salvador of modern maps was the real landing place, others declare that, from the brief description given, Watling's island is manifestly the land of first discovery; but the impossibility of settling this controversy renders a discussion of the question out of place here.

The appearance of the people, which interests us most, is thus described by Columbus in his journal: "The men and women go naked as they were born into the world. They are well shaped and with agreeable features. Their hair, as coarse as horse hair, falls over their foreheads, and is left to grow in a long tail behind, but it is not crisp. These men are in truth a fine race; they have lofty foreheads, and bigger heads than any natives I have ever seen before in my travels. Their eyes are large and fine, their legs straight, stature high, and their movements graceful. Some are painted a blackish color, but are of the same tawny hue as are the natives of the Canary islands. Many are painted white, red or some other color, as to the whole body, or the face around the eyes, and sometimes only the nose. They have no weapons such as we have, and seem not even to know the properties of weaponry."

But though simple in their manner, the natives had such weapons as lances made by pointing pieces of cane with shark's teeth and obsidian. Some of the people were observed to bear the marks of serious wounds, received, as they explained, in battles with natives of neighboring islands who sought to enslave them. When confidence was established, the islanders curiously inquired, by means of signs, if their visitors were not heaven-descended, for in their simple faith they believed the vessels riding at anchor before them were huge creatures of the air that had descended in the night, bearing to them celestial passengers, the object of whose visit they could not determine. But familiar intercourse reassured them, and before the day was ended they manifested the greatest curiosity to know their visitors better, and evidenced their feeling of security by the freest commingling and interchange of civilities, taking the form of active barter of nets, fruits, cotton yarns, parrots and occasional pieces of gold, for the attractive trifles that the Spaniards had to give.

FAMILIARITY FOLLOWED BY ABUSE.

On the following morning hundreds of the natives came off to the ships in canoes made from the trunks of trees, some of which were large enough to comfortably carry as many as fifty men, while others were so small as to scarcely support a single person. But the islanders had such familiarity with the water that they appeared aquatic in their habits, and to be capsized miles from the shore gave them no uneasiness, for they would dextrously right their crafts and bale them out with gourds with which every paddler was provided, in anticipation of such accidents.

Observing that a few of the islanders wore small ornaments of gold in their noses, the cupidity and avarice of the Spaniards was quickly excited, and with great eagerness Columbus inquired whence came those pieces of the precious metal. They responded by informing him that somewhere south of them there was a larger island ruled by a king who possessed immense quantities of gold, and whose drinking vessels were all made of that metal. He asked some of them to accompany him upon a visit to that auriferous land, but they refusing, in his anxiety to enrich himself and followers, Columbus hastened his departure. Herein was the beginning of that long and painful story of the cupidity, wandering and gold-greed with which the Spanish adventurers and heroes of the sixteenth century were all inflamed.

Only one thing restrained the desire of the crews for an immediate embarkation to pursue their quest for gold, and this was the condemnable passion of lustful appetite. Before their unbridled and lascivious senses the Spaniards saw a people of modest manners and a guileless disposition, and this they would violate by inaugurating an immorality to which the natives were yet strangers. We cannot fail to reflect upon the astounding satire furnished by the contrast of naked modesty and pure manners of this untutored island tribe as compared with the lustful appetite, calculating avarice, distrust, latent cruelty, and perfidious spirit of the Spanish mariners, products as they were of one of the oldest civilizations—a civilization upon which the forces of literature, art and so-called religion had operated for nearly a thousand years.

BELIEF OF COLUMBUS RESPECTING HIS DISCOVERY.

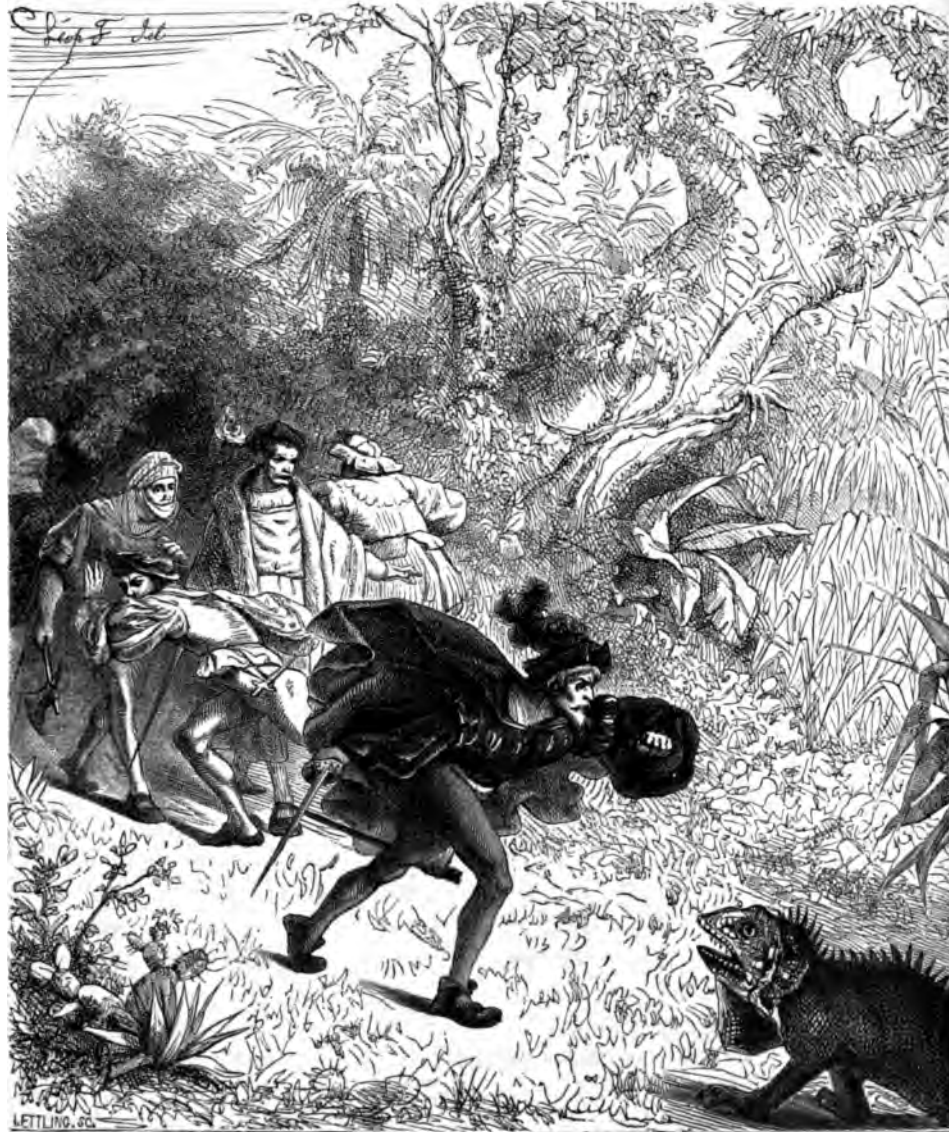
Believing that the island upon which he had landed was one of the five thousand described by Marco Polo as lying in the sea off Cathay, Columbus regarded the natives as a fraction of the great races of India, wherefore he called them Indians. But they bore none of the characteristics observed in the peoples with which Polo came in contact. If, however, they were a far outlying contingent of the natives of India, or Zipangu, they must be serviceable in pursuing further discoveries, so Columbus took on board his ship (by abduction) seven of the most promising islanders,* whom he so diligently instructed that they soon became intelligent interpreters, and with these, on the 14th of October, he renewed his voyage. To more thoroughly acquaint himself with the size and productions of the island, however, he sailed entirely around it, finding that it abounded with cocoanuts and bananas—fruits never before seen by Europeans—and such products as yams, cotton, yucca, and pine-apples. But he deemed it unsuited for colonization, because of its smallness, and he turned the prows of his vessels to renew the quest for the mainland of Cathay, which he hoped soon to gain, and there presenting to the Grand Khan the letter of friendship from his sovereigns, gather the rich recompense of his success and then return in triumph to receive the favors of Isabella and the plaudits of mankind.

* "I took some Indians, *by force*, from the first island I came to, that they might learn our language, and tell what they knew of their country."—*Letter of Columbus to Don Raphael Sanchez*.

ADVENTURE WITH A HORRID MONSTER.

A few hours' sail from Guanahani brought the expedition in sight of a great cluster of islands, more than a hundred of which his native interpreters named. One of the largest appearing he approached, and finding the shores inviting made a landing and erecting thereon a cross as a sign of Christian occupation, christened the island *St. Mary of the Conception*.

Two other large islands he named respectively *Fernandine* and *Isabella*. The latter was so full of natural delights that he remained there for two days exploring its beauties of lovely scenery, picturesque groves, flowery meads, and fruit-bearing trees. The air was full of sweetest fragrance and resonant with the voice of warbling birds, no less gorgeously arrayed than tuneful. The natives were very like those with whom he first came in contact, but they lived in huts more artis-



ADVENTURE OF COLUMBUS WITH AN IGUANA.

tically constructed, and possessed more ornaments of gold. On the island—betraying its volcanic origin—was a considerable lake of crystal water abounding with fish. While walking along the shore Columbus was at first horror-stricken by the sight of a monster lizard with armament of bristling scales, dreadful claws and hideous head. But instead of standing upon the offensive, the creature retreated into the shallow water, whither Columbus pursued and killed it with a lance. It being of such remarkable size and

repelling aspect he took off its skin, which he declares measured seven feet in length, and preserved it as an example of the frightful reptilian life of the new world. This lizard was an iguana, common in the inter-tropical countries of America, where, despite its horrid appearance, the flesh is so highly esteemed as to readily command twenty-five cents per pound in the markets. It is not known to exceed five feet in length.

But all the beauties or wonders of earth could not long retain the interest of Columbus. He gave to them the tribute of a passing notice, but his mind was absorbed with an ambition for gain ; his thirst for gold was unappeasable ; his day-dreams were gilded with the treasure which he set out to seek. Of this avaricious passion Barry, the compiler from De Lorgues, his most ardent Catholic admirer, thus writes : "In this voyage his (Columbus,) object was less to observe nature than to acquire gold, in order to make Spain interested in the matter of continuing the discoveries, by giving palpable proofs of their importance. He sought gold, especially in order to commence the fund of the immense treasure he desired to amass. The deliverance of the Holy Land and the purchase of the tomb of Jesus Christ were always before his eyes—the supreme object of his ambition. He desired then to collect, in order to convert them into gold, the spices of the Orient, the frontiers of which he believed he had reached. But it was gold that he sought particularly. Everywhere he inquired diligently about the land of gold. The sight of the precious metal exerted in him an ardent desire for it and an almost loving eagerness. Never, perhaps, did a Christian desire gold for a like purpose. Not being able to find some as soon as he expected, he addressed himself to God, and besought Him to direct him to some and to its beds."

THE AVARICE AND CRUELTY OF COLUMBUS.

This, while intending to present Columbus as a man possessed of the holiest ambition, actually represents him as one of the most rapacious, venal and greedy mercenaries of which history gives us any account. How his conscience could conceive and defend an aspiration to purchase the Holy Sepulchre surpasses our comprehension. Such an ambition is a reflection upon the wisdom and power of God Himself, who for His own reasons suffered and continues to suffer the enemies of Christianity to hold possession of that sacred shrine, against which seas of blood have surged in vain. And the unholiness of his ambition is emphasized by the cruel methods which he employed in his mad efforts to acquire riches. The burning of villages, massacres of defenceless natives, the inauguration of every iniquity, and lastly the enslavement of helpless men, women and children, until his more merciful sovereign cried out against his cruelties, whose heart would not permit her to profit by such inhumanities—these are some of the results of his wanton greed, his impious lust, his worldly aspirations. While remembering the glory of his accomplishment in discovering a new world, let us not forget the ignominy of those acts by which the inoffensive, trustful, guileless and affectionate natives of the West Indies were converted into slaves, and oppressed into the most debased savagery. Not even the fanaticism of the age nor the hypocrisy of his pretensions can excuse him of the crime of barbarous ferocity, of voracious, blood-thirsty avarice, in which disposition he was in no wise different from the members of his expedition.

Before leaving the island of Isabella, Columbus was told of a country somewhere to the south-west which the natives called Cuba, and upon which it was declared there was such an abundance of gold, that a warlike people from the north frequently invaded the country and carried off immense quantities of that valuable metal. To this exciting recital was added a report that there were on Cuba many large cities ruled by powerful monarchs, and that in every respect the country was the most delightful and the richest in all the

world. Or rather, it may be better said, that Columbus so interpreted the signs by which communication was carried on ; but his imagination was at all times so energetic that he painted the most commonplace things with the colors of fancy, and this strong ideality was constantly leading him into the by-ways of sore disappointment.

DISCOVERY OF CUBA.

Believing implicitly in the wild romance of Cuban grandeur and inconceivable wealth, Columbus again spread his sails, on the 24th of October, for the shore of that gold embroidered country ; but at the moment of weighing anchor one of the interpreters, obtained at Guanahani, leaped overboard and made his escape to shore, despite every exertion made by four sailors in a boat to overhaul him. Contrary winds also rose, followed by terrible rain-storms, so that progress was greatly impeded. On the third day a cluster of islands, now known as the Mucaras, was passed, and on the succeeding day the shores of Cuba, at a point a few miles west of where the town of Nuevitas del Principe now stands, broke into view. The most casual view gave conclusive indication that the land was an extensive one, even continental in appearance. Bold promontories distinguished the shores, and a large river was observed winding its way through a rich valley and emboguing into the ocean near the point where the shore-line was first seen.

The ships were run into an estuary, which served as an excellent harbor, and where an abundance of crystal-like fresh water was obtainable, and a landing made. Immediately upon going on shore Columbus took possession of the island (which he thought might possibly be the mainland of Zipangu, or Cathay) in the



THE DELIGHTFUL SHORES OF ISABELLA ISLAND.

name of the Empress Isabella, and in honor of the heir apparent, Prince Juan, he called the country Juanna, and the port where he landed San Salvador.

The landing of the Spaniards had attracted the surprise of many natives, who watched with anxious curiosity from afar the strange beings and marvellous boats that had thus visited their shores ; but they in turn were observed, and also a small village of circular, conical-roofed huts that lay half concealed in the deep shade of a luxurious forest. When the ceremony of occupation was completed, and a wooden cross set up as a mark of possession, Columbus, with several of his men, paid a visit to the village, which, however, was deserted upon their approach. Entering the abandoned huts he was much disappointed to find therein the same evidences of poverty that distinguished the islanders of Guanahani, and with no appearances of a better social condition. He found many fishing nets, harpoons pointed with bone, carved pieces of wood, and swinging couches made of netting which the natives called *hamacs*, a name that survives with us in the slight change to *hammock*. Proceeding farther towards the interior Columbus found a marvellous diversity of beauteous landscape, groves of palm trees, abundance of bananas, a sensuous atmosphere perfume laden, crystal waters, and great numbers of parrots and other beautifully-feathered birds. He was fairly overwhelmed by the natural splendors that lay spread about him, but while believing this must be the mainland of Asia he could not account for

the primitive character of the people, who were evidently unacquainted with any of the forms of civilization.

A VISIT TO NATIVE VILLAGES.

After many efforts, Columbus at length persuaded a few of the natives to approach and receive presents from his hands, and intercourse once established, he was quickly surrounded by swarms of islanders, who manifested desire for pacific relations by bringing quantities of fruits to the Spaniards, as offerings of homage. By them he was told that the country was an island, and near the centre were mountains of gold, while along the water courses precious pearls and stones might be found in great numbers; that the capital city lay not



THE CROSS OF POSSESSION.

far distant and was more beautiful than any other thing on the island. This information fired the Spaniards with new desire and they were all exceedingly anxious to begin the gathering of riches which they believed were scattered about in inconceivable profusion not many miles distant.

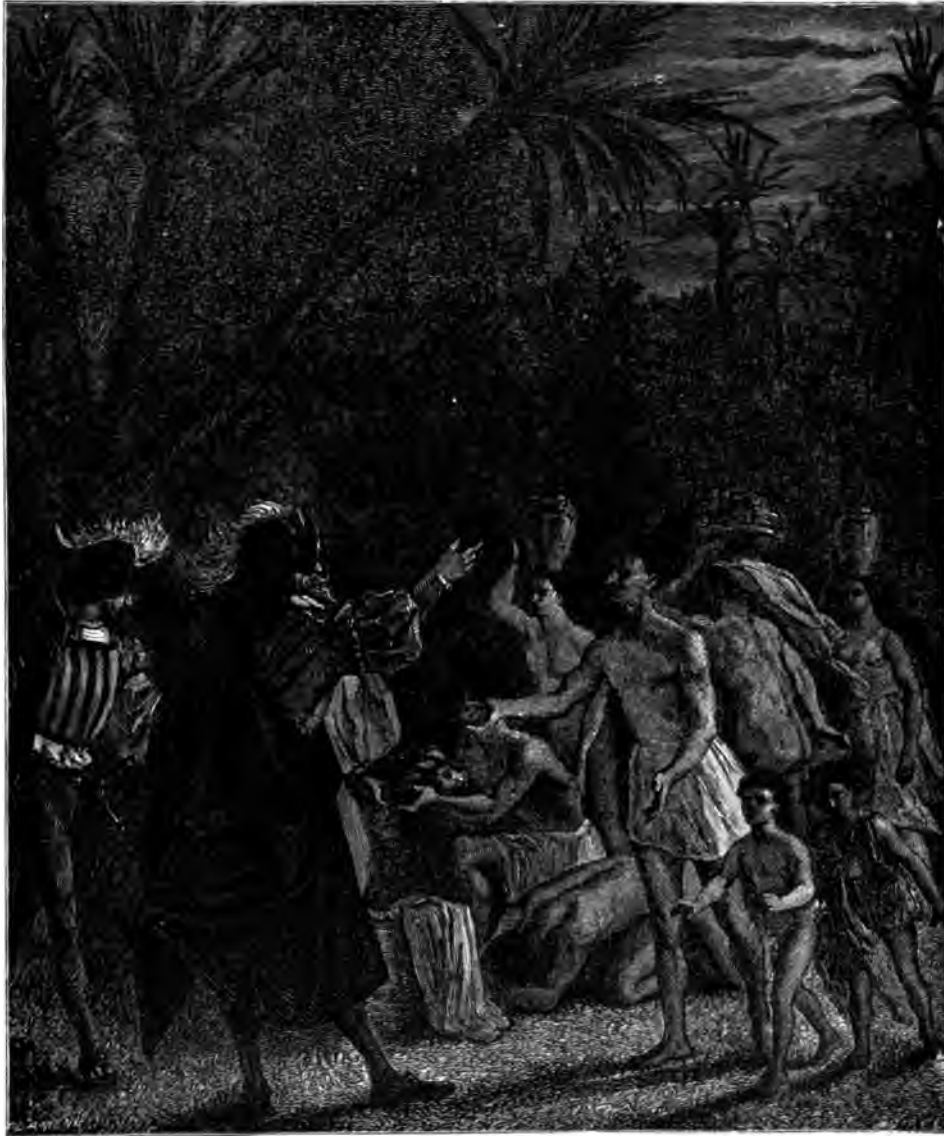
In this quest for the bag of gold that lies at the foot of the rainbow, Columbus set out with his resolute followers in a westerly direction along the coast, until another village was sighted at the mouth of a river, before which the squadron anchored, and a visit made to the town. The inhabitants fled with precipitation to the hills, leaving their visitors in quiet possession, and could not be induced to return and open communication. The houses composing this village were more pretentious in size and architectural in appearance than those first visited, and within Columbus found rudely carved effigies and wooden visors of hideous visage, besides harpoons, fishing nets and such other paraphernalia as indicated the poverty and low superstitions of the natives, but there were neither gold, silver nor precious stones.

The promise of reward being again disappointing, Columbus set his sails once more and proceeded along the north coast until he reached an extensive headland, to which he gave the name of Cape of Palms, and which is but little more than one hundred miles from the southern point of Florida. Here he met with some natives who told him that just around the promontory a large river emptied into the sea, while a short distance beyond, no more than four days' journey, lay *Cubanacan*. At the mention of this word Columbus was much excited, because he now believed that the resemblance in pronunciation between this word and Kublai Khan was evidence that he was approaching the capital of that Cathayan monarch. Unfortunately, as was long afterwards ascertained, the expression *Cubanacan*, in the native language, signified the centre or interior of the island.

AN EMBASSY TO A CHIEF.

The anchors were weighed and the voyage of discovery was continued, but no river was to be seen, and now, believing that he had misunderstood his informants, Columbus returned to the mouth of the Rio de los Mares and renewed intercourse with the natives whom he found anxious to barter, and pacific in disposition. In the belief that gold abounded somewhere in the vicinity, he ordered that nothing but pieces of that precious metal be accepted in exchange for articles which the Spaniards had to trade, but the anxiety of the natives and the vainness of this measure soon convinced him of the extreme

scarcity of gold thereabouts. But one Cuban was seen supporting a piece of silver from his nose, who, becoming a great object of interest, told Columbus that four days' journey in the interior was a large city in which lived a mighty emperor, who, having learned of the white visitors, had sent messengers to invite them to visit his capital. This news was most encouraging, and that he might display the courtesies of civilization, Columbus chose an embassy of four, composed of the polyglot Jew, Rodrigo de Jarez, a Guanahani native, and a Cuban guide, who were provided with many presents, such as hawk-bells, glass trinkets, and a variety of other gew-gaws. Besides the offerings, they were bearers of letters addressed to the Grand Kahn, conveying profound considerations of the Spanish sovereigns, and expressions of desire to establish amicable



HOSPITABLE RECEPTION BY THE NATIVES OF GUANAHANI.

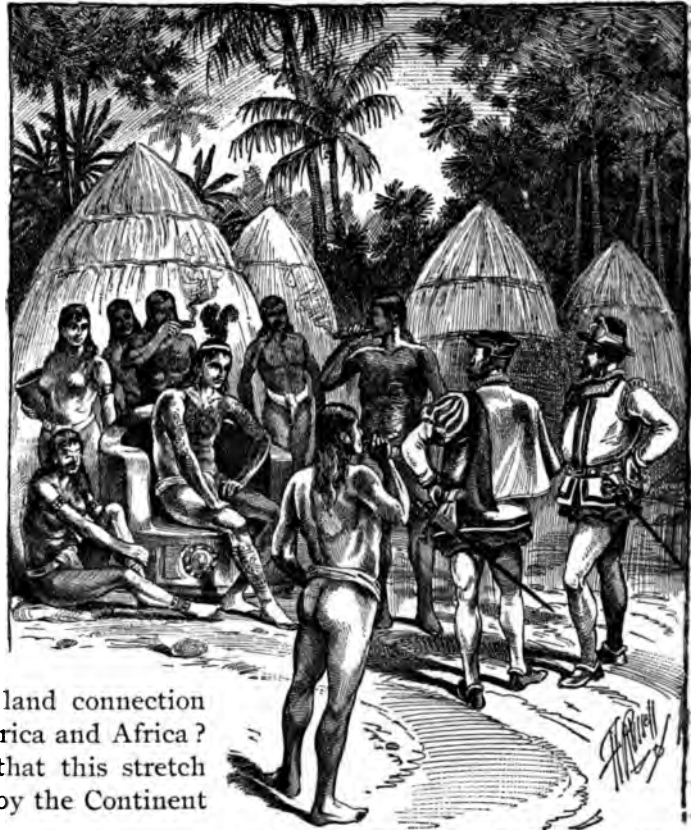
relations with the Asiatic potentate whose kingdom Columbus believed had been reached.

During the absence of the embassy, which Columbus knew must occupy several days, he employed the time making careful examination of the adjacent country and its productions. Finding the river, near which the ships were anchored, navigable for considerable crafts, he ascended it several miles and was rewarded by finding many valuable woods, such as cinnamon, nutmeg, rhubarb, and, what was more gratifying still, a tuber which the natives baked in the fire and ate with great relish, and which the Spaniards found

equally palatable. This proved to be the potato (derived from the native name *batata*), little valued at the time, but, as Mr. Irving observes, a more precious acquisition to man than all the spices and pearls of the east.

The farther he proceeded, however, the more marvellous grew the tales of native wealth, until even the incomparable credulity of the Spaniards became heavily taxed. The Indians told, with deceptive gravity, of places in the country where people wore bracelets of gold and necklaces of fine pearls; but some of these marvellously rich natives, they declared, were noted equally for their astounding aspect. One race, living in the district of Bohio, had only a single eye placed in the centre of the forehead, and were extremely fierce. Another people whose principal capital was called Kaniba, had the heads of dogs. They were not only brutal in appearance, but even more so in disposition, for they were cannibals and took special pleasure in drinking the blood of their enemies. There was also an island named Mantinino, in the midst of a large lake, inhabited by women only, who frequently fought with men on the main shore, and who tortured their prisoners with fiendish cruelty.

We are impressed by the similarity between these traditions and those of several Central African tribes, which are so nearly identical that the coincidence seems to point unmistakably to the same origin. Can this fact be taken as an evidence of the ancient existence of a land connection between the West Indies, South America and Africa? Is it a link in the chain of proof that this stretch of waters was at one time bridged by the Continent of Atlantis, as Pliny declares?



THE CUBAN CHIEF AND SPANISH EMBASSY.

RESULTS OF A VISIT TO THE CACIQUE.

At the end of six days the embassy returned with a most interesting but extremely disappointing report. They had found the capital city, not more than thirty-six miles from the coast, but instead of a place abounding with riches, they discovered it to be a village composed of some fifty huts occupied by nearly one thousand naked or half-clad people. Instead of meeting a mighty monarch, known as Kublai Khan, by Marco Polo, they were introduced to a tall Indian chief, whose throne was a block of wood very rudely carved, and who could provide no better feast than cassava bread, bananas, cocoanuts and water. The Jew turned his tongue to all his vocabularies, but without success. The guide, however, was able to make himself understood and succeeded in explaining to the chief that the Spaniards were children descended from the sun, who were anxious to establish a friendship with his people. By this introduction the Cubans were made worshippers of

their visitors, and after exchanging some parrots, cotton-yarn, cassava and fruits for trinkets, several desired to accompany the embassy on their return to the ships, but only one man and his son were permitted this privilege.

During the interview with the native chief the ambassadors observed what they regarded as a curious ceremony, in some wise connected with religious worship:—Numbers of the natives, young and old, carried about dried leaves which they rolled up in the form of a tubule, and applying fire to one end, inserted the other in the mouth, and after sucking it they expelled great quantities of smoke. These rolls the natives called *tobago*, whence is derived the word *tobacco*, which the leaves thus rolled together, forming a cigar, proved to be. Another yet more important discovery was made in the finding of Indian corn, from which the natives made a fairly good bread, but on account of their inability to separate the kernel from the shell, they preferred cassava. A transplantation of this most useful grain to Europe quickly followed, however, and has given such beneficent results as are only equalled by the cultivation of the potato.

But though the Grand Khan of Columbus' imagination turned out to be only a naked chief, and the palatial city of the conjectured Quainsay a miserable village of loud-smelling huts, the reports of gold-abounding districts continued to lure the avaricious sailors. The natives now declared that somewhere towards the east was a river with banks of golden sand, to which people came every night with torches to gather stores of the precious deposit, which, however, was so plentiful that the gold was only valuable because of the vessels into which it might be easily wrought. The country where this wealth of auriferous sands was to be found the natives called *Babeque*, and thither the expedition started with a covetous distraction, like that of a boy chasing a will-o'-the-wisp over a misty bog, and with the same disappointments. All the beauties of the island, all its wonderful productions of forest, grove and field, all its opportunities for colonization and the spread of Christianity, alike failed to impress these adventurers, whose lust for gold subordinated every other ambition, and destroyed every commendable impulse.

THE DESERTION OF PINZON.

From the 28th of October until the 19th of November this heartless quest for gold continued, Columbus all the while dreaming, awake and asleep, of mountains of the precious metal which he would presently find and therefrom load his vessels for an offering to the Spanish sovereigns. But when disappointment after disappointment finally began to corrode his hopes and dispel the illusions of his imagination, he grew morose, and this sullenness of disposition also seized upon Alonzo Pinzon, who separated his vessel, the *Pinta*, from her companions, in order to make an independent search for the valleys, streams and mountains of gold which they had been unable to find while sailing together. But he was no more successful, and in rejoining the expedition, excused his act of desertion by declaring that he had been separated from the *Santa Maria* and *Niña* by storms that had violently driven the vessels after their departure from the anchorage before the river Rio de Mares.

In his chagrin at the failures which attended his many efforts to find the gold which the islanders declared so often lay just a little way beyond, Columbus decided to seize several natives, choosing the most comely maidens and young men, and carry them back to Spain as specimens of the race occupying the new world of his discovery. In order to do this he had to violate all natural rights, but this gave small concern to Spanish conscience, and from this initial step the enslavement of these powerless, hospitable and kindly natives directly followed.

Columbus continued for several days along the coast of Cuba, naming the capes and

bays that he passed, until the 19th of November, when the *Pinta* deserted him during a serious storm, and he put into the estuary of St. Catharine for safety. Here he seems to have been recalled from his avaricious contemplation to a consideration of the beauties which were spread around him in a boundless prodigality of efflorescence—flower, fruit and forest; a marvellous versatility of nature—rippling streams, leaping cascades, warbling birds of iris-wing, emerald lands, skies of azure, clouds barred with gold, soothingly sensuous air, and all the delights that a blessed clime could afford. In making report of the country about this harbor to Ferdinand and Isabella, Columbus says: "I often say to my people that, much as I endeavor to give a complete account of it to your Majesties, my tongue cannot express the whole truth, nor my pen describe it; and I have been so overwhelmed at the sight of so much beauty that I have not known how to relate it." So proceeding, he dwells upon the transparency of the waters, how the most exquisite shells could be seen at five fathoms depth lying like jewels of Neptune on the pearly sands that formed the ocean's floor, and then tells of gigantic forest trees, the trunk of one being formed into a canoe capable of carrying one hundred and fifty persons.

SOME WONDERFUL STORIES ABOUT IMAGINARY PEOPLE.

After thus spending three days in a delightful examination of the coast about his anchorage, which he named Puerto Santo (Holy Port), Columbus again sailed eastward to the extreme limit of Cuba, and named the point Alpha-and-Omega. Instead of continuing around the island and directing his course southwesterly, which would have brought him, in a sail of one hundred and thirty miles, to the shores of Yucatan and thus gained the continent, he doubled the eastern extremity of Cuba, but turned directly eastward again until another island burst upon his vision, which in his enraptured state he believed must be Babeque, or Bohio, the land of gold. But the natives whom he had seized exhibited the gravest alarms, for here they declared was the land of cannibals, of dog-headed men, of cyclops, and other monstrosities and terrors, which would devour any one that had the temerity to land upon their shores.

No alarms, however, were great enough to repress the enthusiasm of Columbus and his followers, whose thirst for gold rendered them insensible to all dangers, but on account of adverse winds a landing was not effected until two days after the coast was first sighted.

The new land which rose before the Spaniards was the beautiful island now known as Hayti, or San Domingo, which they, on closer observation, perceived to be marvellously picturesque. The mountains in the central part rose to such a height as to be plainly visible from the sea, and from these fell away verdant foot-hills, which in turn faded into lovely valleys clothed with a luxuriant vegetation. Here and there Columbus detected columns of slowly rising smoke, indicative of an industrial community thriving off the abundant harvest yields of a highly-favored country.

The two ships were put into a capacious harbor, large enough to accommodate a fleet of many hundred sail, to which he gave the name St. Nicholas, and by which designation it is still known. Recently the harbor has been the subject of some diplomatic correspondence between the representatives of our country and the government of Hayti, looking towards the acquisition of coaling privileges by the United States.

CAPTURE OF A NATIVE WOMAN.

Upon going on shore Columbus found the island well peopled, and several towns, some of considerable size, were visited, but the inhabitants took flight on the approach of the Spaniards. The country was well cultivated, and the roads connecting villages were in good condition, so that with orchards, gardens, fields of grain, houses of a fair construction,

there were abundant evidences attesting the great superiority of these natives over their Cuban neighbors. But they were surprisingly timid, notwithstanding their reputation for fierceness, and being unable for this reason to open intercourse with them, Columbus sent a company to pursue and bring to him some of the people, who had abandoned their villages and taken refuge among the mountains. Diligent search for these refugees at length resulted in the capture of one woman, who was entirely naked, but wore a gold pendant in her nose.

The admiral received his prisoner with signs of regard, and after providing her with clothes, gave her presents of hawk's bells and other gew-gaws, which soon won her thankful admiration and made her condition such a pleasant one that she professed no desire to return to



LANDING IN ST. NICHOLAS HARBOR, HAYTI.

her people. But Columbus placed her in charge of nine Spaniards and one Cuban interpreter, who conducted her to the village where she lived, which was some fifteen miles in the interior, with the view of using her to open negotiations with the natives. The town contained about one thousand huts and probably six or seven thousand people, but even this large population was terrified by the sight of white men, and all decamped with precipitation towards the hills. After great patience and many efforts, the woman and the interpreter induced some of the boldest to return, who, being conducted to the presence of the Spaniards, exhibited every sign of worshipful awe. The woman's husband was among the first to approach, through her persuasions, and it was amusing to see his demonstrations of amazement at the clothes and ornaments with which his proud wife was invested.

A PLEASANT VISIT TO THE HAYTIANS.

The confidence of the Indians was at length obtained, and they conducted their visitors in great state to the best houses of the town, where a splendid banquet of cassava bread, fish, bananas and other native fruits was provided. After this introductory ceremony the freest intercourse prevailed. Columbus observes that the islanders now dismissed their fears and began to exhibit their generous instincts by presenting the Spaniards with everything they thought might be desired by their visitors. They appeared to have no knowledge of values, for their gifts were made as if the act of giving afforded great pleasure. Their manner of life was innocent in the highest degree, as during the whole time the Spaniards spent among the natives, not a single act of violence or treachery was observed. It was also evident that there was a confraternity of interest among them, since each was willing to share with his neighbor whatever he had, exacting no equivalent, and in all respects exhibiting, by word and deed, a common brotherhood not found to exist among so-called Christian people. Among them, also, the sacredness of the marriage relation was observed, and monogamy prevailed, except that chiefs were permitted to take a plurality of wives, the limit being twenty. There being no division of property, or separation of interests, the harmony of their relation was never broken, and no disturbances of any character afflicted these innocent and peace-loving natives, save occasional invasions of other islanders, which was followed by temporary disquietude.

But while Columbus found Hayti or Hispaniola to be a most fertile island, and inhabited by a prosperous and contented people with whom he had inaugurated a pleasant intercourse, he was disappointed again in his expectations of finding the mountains and valleys of gold, towards which his heart and hopes continually inclined; so on December 14th, he departed to renew the search for the golden kingdom of Babeque. He presently discovered another island to which he gave the name of Tortugas, or Turtle Island, and coasted it until he determined that its size was inconsiderable, though he observed that the island was well watered by rivers and lakes, and that it supported a luxurious vegetation.

A VISIT IN STATE FROM THE CACIQUE.

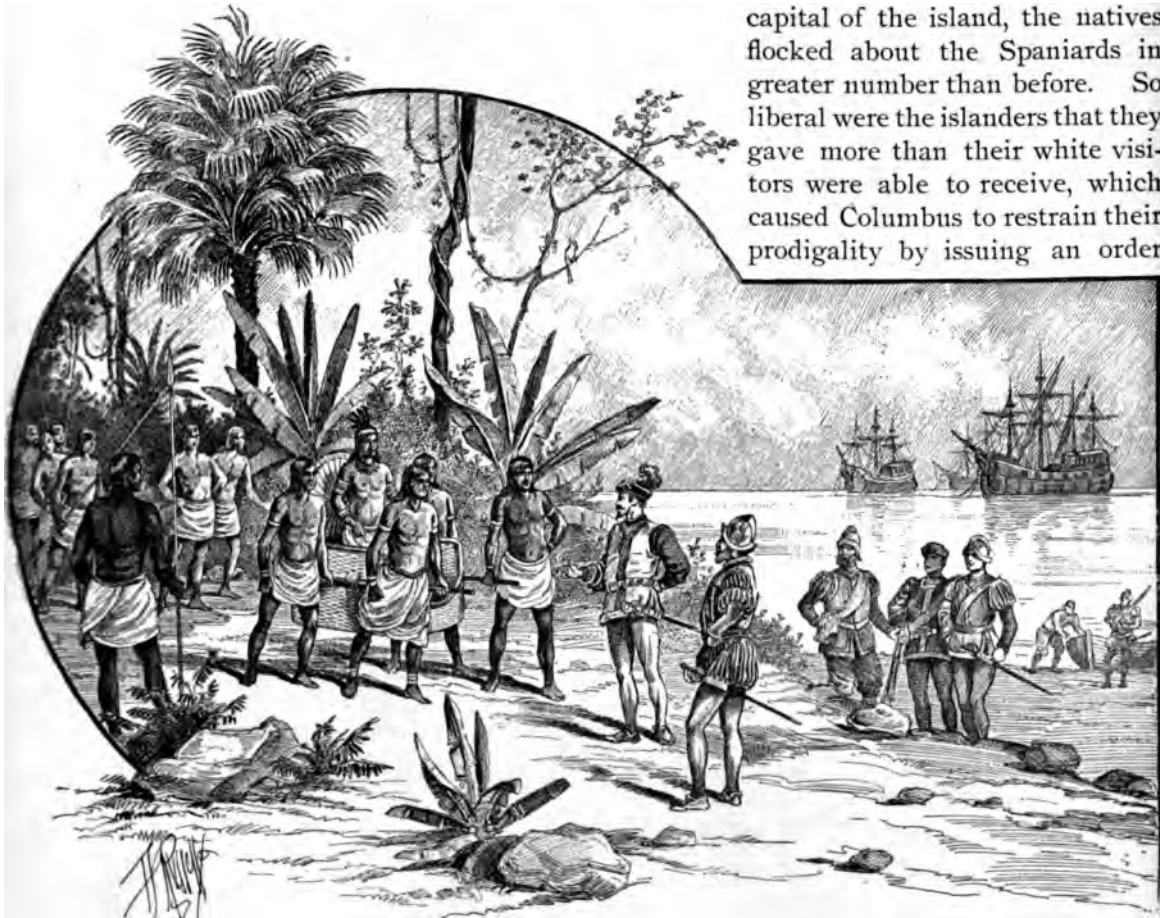
After a cruise of three days, without important results, Columbus returned to the coast of Hispaniola (little Spain), and put into a pleasant harbor which he named Puerto de Paz, with the purpose to renew his explorations of the interior. The report of his return was quickly noised abroad through the island, and on the 18th, one of the caciques, or chiefs of the natives, came in state, borne as he was by four men in a wicker-work basket, or what might be called a palanquin, and accompanied by his ministers, to pay his respects to the Spaniards. Proceeding on board the *Santa Maria*, as Columbus was at dinner, the cacique was conducted to the salon, where he bowed most courteously to the Admiral, and accepted an invitation to dine, though he ate very little. After the meal was ended, as an exhibition of his amity and regard, the cacique presented Columbus with a belt wrought of cocoanut fibre in a most artistic manner, and ornamented with thin plates of gold; in return for which the delighted admiral gave his imperial guest a counterpane of many colors, a collar of amber beads, a pair of red buskins, and a glass flask filled with orange-flower water, the fragrance of which was very pleasant. After this exchange of presents, the cacique took his leave, but his brother, perceiving the profit that had attended the visit, came on board and so far forgot his dignity as to beg for similar mementos of the white man's generosity, nor did his boldness go wholly unrewarded.

While lying in Puerto de Paz, Columbus was entertained by the natives with extravagant stories of incredible wealth, one of whom declared that he knew an island not far distant where all the mountains were of gold, and the shores were of the same precious metal. But such tales no longer had the effect they once produced upon Columbus, though he did not yet abandon hope that he would arrive upon some island where gold so abounded as to enable him to load his vessels with it, and enrich him beyond the dreams of kings.

EXCHANGE OF VALUABLE PRESENTS.

On the 20th of December, the anchors were raised and on the same day the harbor of St. Thomas was found and named, where upon landing before a large village, the

capital of the island, the natives flocked about the Spaniards in greater number than before. So liberal were the islanders that they gave more than their white visitors were able to receive, which caused Columbus to restrain their prodigality by issuing an order



A STATE VISIT OF A CACIQUE, AT THE HARBOR OF PUERTO DE PAZ.

forbidding any of his men accepting anything unless they bestowed something in return. At this harbor, where Columbus remained several days, spending much of his time on shore, he was received by an embassy from the monarch of the island, the Grand Cacique Guacanagari, who despatched a messenger bearing as a present to the Admiral a delicately wrought belt, to which were suspended colored bits of bone, and a face dextrously carved in wood, with the eyes, nose and tongue of beaten gold, accompanied by a pressing invitation from the chief to visit his palace.

Not being willing to leave the ships, as the weather appeared threatening, Columbus sent his royal notary, and six men bearing many presents, to accept the hospitalities of

Guacanagari and to convey to him assurances of regard and an intention to visit him as soon as the weather became fair. The Spanish embassy was received with great ceremony, and given every privilege to enjoy whatever the town or its people afforded, and upon being conducted to the presence of the great chief they were made recipients of his most bounteous favors. Receiving from the hands of the Spaniards the presents which Colum-



THE GENEROUS NATIVES FOLLOW THE RETURNING BOATS.

bus had forwarded, he invited them to remain over night in the town, but this they had to decline in pursuance of orders requiring them to return on the same day ; whereupon the chief delivered to them, as presents for the Admiral, several pieces of gold and two large parrots that had been taught to utter several words of the native tongue, which were curiosities that Columbus highly prized.

LOSS OF THE SANTA MARIA.

On their return to the ships the Spaniards were accompanied by more than a thousand natives, who followed after them in canoes with liberal gifts of fruit, curious native handiwork, and a few pieces of gold, which they gave with freedom. Seeing that the latter was held in greatest estimation, several of the natives declared, as an inducement to prolong the stay of their visitors, that in a district called Cibao, somewhere in the interior, there abounded great treasures of gold and precious stones, to which place they would gladly pilot the Spaniards.

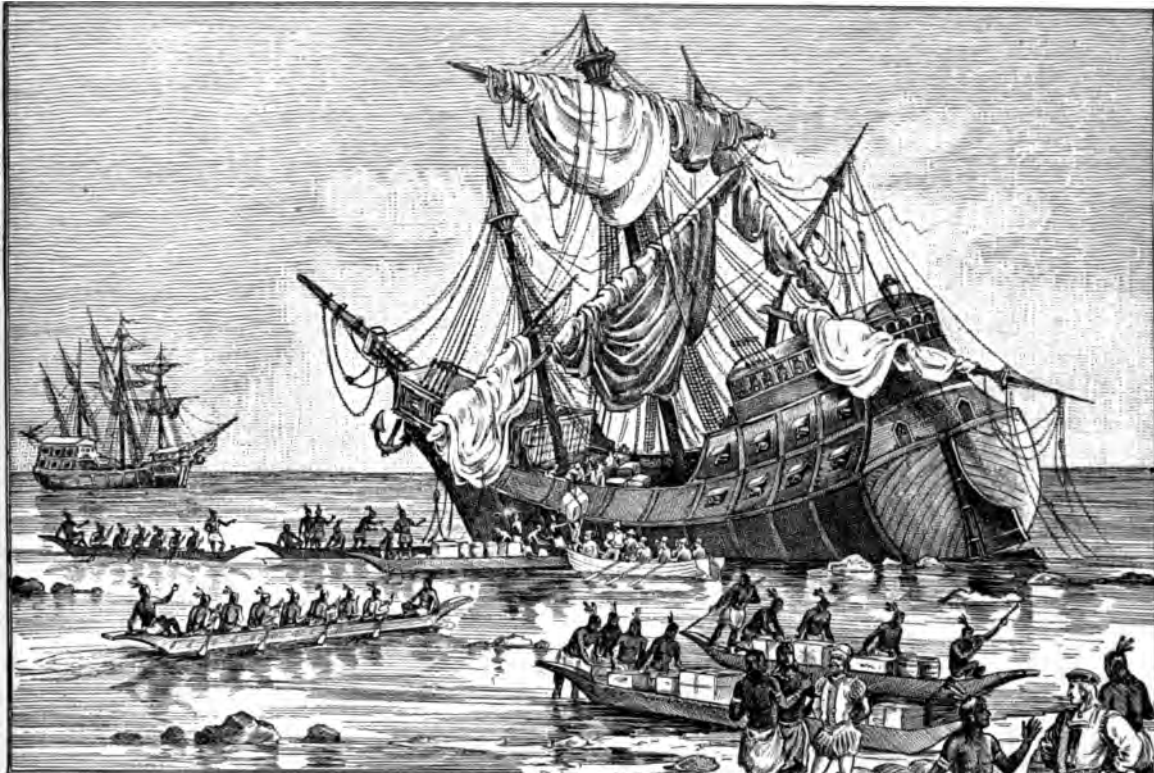
This report acted as fresh fuel to the flame of his avarice, and visions of Quainsay, the rich kingdom of Kubla Khan, and possessions of the wealth which had been the basis of his ambition, again rose in luring grandeur before the longing eyes of Columbus, and he became filled with desire to gain that glittering region.

But the tropical winter was at hand and tempestuous weather became an interposing barrier to his aspirations. On Christmas Eve, when the anchors were weighed to proceed on a voyage around the island to a point nearer Cibao, the sky was serene, and with a feeling of security Columbus retired to sleep, leaving his subordinate officers in charge of the *Santa Maria*. It appears that the helmsman soon followed the example of the Admiral and went to sleep, leaving an inexperienced cabin-boy at the rudder, while the other officers, lulled into a false security by the calmness of the sea, fell likewise into drowsy unconcern. The vessel directly entered a current that swept rapidly through channels about the islands, by which she was carried with full sail upon a sand-bar where she stuck fast and heeled before the wind. The shock of grounding awakened Columbus and also his derelict officers, who now rushed upon the deck to behold the result of their neglect and lend assistance in repairing the misfortune for which they were accountable. The roar of breakers lent an aspect of fury to the darkness of night, and the sailors became distracted with fear and superstition. In this condition Columbus undertook to save his vessel by ordering a company of his men to take a boat and carry an anchor out astern, in order to warp the ship from her perilous position. The men seemed prompt to obey, but the moment they launched the boat they shoved off without the anchor and made with all speed for the *Niña*, which was nearly a league distant. Pinzon, the master, discovering how they had deserted, refused to receive them on board and ordered them back to their duty; but so slowly did they comply that a boat from the *Niña*, with a relief crew, reached the stranded vessel in advance of the returning deserters. Meanwhile, the breakers had thrown the *Santa Maria* still farther upon the sand, where she lay careening and beating with great force. Columbus ordered the masts to be cut away, hoping thus to relieve her, but his efforts were all in vain. The seams now opened, admitting the water, but the tide presently receded, leaving her fast, yet safe for the time from the destructive force of the breakers. Had the sea been tempestuous all must have been drowned, but good fortune so far attended them that all escaped to the *Niña*, and in the morning Columbus sent two of his men, Diego de Arana and Pedro Gutierrez, to the great chief Guacanagari, to acquaint him with their disaster. This sad news moved the compassionate cacique to tears, but he did not stop to ponder over the misfortune. He immediately ordered great numbers of his people to go in canoes to the aid of Columbus, and to implicitly obey his orders in securing the cargo and safety of the ship. At the same time he despatched a messenger to the Admiral with expressions of his sincere regret and to offer him "the whole of his possessions."

GENEROUS HELP OF THE NATIVES.

So efficient were the services of the natives, that in a short while all the goods were

taken out of the ship and carried to a secure place on the shore, where a guard was placed over them by the chief, lest some of his people might be tempted to appropriate some articles for which their fancy longed. No civilized magistrate could have done more to assist and protect the interests of unfortunate friends than did this honest, generous-minded cacique. Nor was the virtue of his actions limited to himself, but extended to all the natives, who appeared to be innocent of any thought of profit from the disaster. "The sympathies of the people for Columbus in his loss, and the reception he received



LOSS OF THE SANTA MARIA.

from the Indian sovereign, mitigated the bitterness of the accident. In no part of the civilized world would he have received warmer or more cordial hospitality."

But the loss was great enough. The *Pinta* was gone; and now the Admiral's flagship, with opened seams, lay prostrate on the perilous sands, quaking with each impact of the sea; shivering like a wounded creature at every blow of the hand that smote it down. O thou *Santa Maria*, thou famous remembrancer of the centuries! The names of none of those that sailed in search of the Golden Fleece are so well-preserved among the eternities of history as is thine. No vessel of Rome, of Greece, of Carthage, of Egypt, that carried conquering Cæsar, triumphant Alexander, valiant Hannibal, or beautiful Cleopatra, shall be so well known to coming ages as thou art. No ship of the Spanish Armada, or of Lord Howard, who swept it from the sea—no looming monster; no Great Eastern or frowning iron-clad of modern navies, shall be held like thee in perpetual

remembrance by all the sons of men. For none ever bore such a hero on such a mission, that has glorified all nations by giving the greatest of all countries to the world.

Touched by the generous treatment which he received at the hands of Guacanagari and his subjects, Columbus pays them this beautiful tribute : " They are a loving, uncovetous people ; so docile in all things that I swear to your majesties there is not in the world a better race or a more delightful country. They love their neighbors as themselves ; and their talk is ever sweet and gentle, accompanied with smiles ; and though they be naked, yet their manners are decorous and praiseworthy."

It may be with soberness asked : Was it better, in the eyes of God, to convert these virtuous people from the happy innocence of their primitive condition, to the civilization of the Spaniards, under which they have become the most degraded specimens of the West India race, or to have left them to enjoy the blessings of loving confidence, contentment, honesty and universal brotherhood which characterized them at the time of Columbus's coming ? In truth, it does appear that these simple people had found Christ before they heard His name, or saw the cross that the civilized Spaniards erected to teach them how He died.

A DISPLAY OF SPANISH ARMS.

To arouse him from the despondency of his situation, the cacique had the rescued goods carried into three buildings prepared for the purpose, and then gave Columbus an urgent invitation to accept the hospitalities of his capital. Since the voyage could not be continued until the *Santa Maria* was repaired and floated, or her final loss determined, the Admiral availed himself of the courtesies so cordially extended and went on shore, where he was magnificently received. A banquet was then set by the native king, at which Columbus and several of his officers were regaled with every delicacy that the island afforded. At the meal the cacique conducted himself with a dignity and decorum scarcely surpassed by the most civilized potentates, and as if he had long been accustomed to entertaining distinguished representatives from the first powers of the world.

In return for the kindnesses received, Columbus invited Guacanagari and his ministers to dine with him on board the *Niña*, which gave the cacique intense delight, and was followed by an interchange of courtesies mutually profitable and pleasurable. A familiarity thus became established, and Columbus had opportunity of displaying before the natives some of the arts and instruments of power of Castilian civilization. The Spanish arms were exhibited and the sailors were put through evolutions to show their military precision and skill in the handling of arbalets, Moorish hand-bows, arquebuses, and the destruction that might be produced by their artillery of falconets. Having demonstrated the effectiveness of Spanish weapons, Columbus explained to the chief how he might make his island proof against the invasion of Caribs, who were accustomed to make predatory incursions into Hispaniola for purposes of spoliation. The Caribs of the Bahamas and of South America were indeed terrors to all the other West Indies islanders, who suffered constantly from their depredations, and were not infrequently enslaved by them ; so that the suggestions of Columbus were hailed with great delight by Guacanagari, and his request for permission to erect a fort on the island was accordingly granted with gladness. On the other hand, Columbus utilized this privilege as a proof of priority of occupation against all claims which might be thereafter made by other nations sending expeditions into these waters, for it was his intent to recommend the island as possessing special advantages for successful colonization.

AN ENTERTAINMENT PROVIDED BY THE NATIVES.

At the conclusion of the very impressive exhibition made by the Spaniards, the cacique provided an entertainment for his guests, which, though devoid of military aspect, was none

the less interesting. The most athletic natives appeared and strove for honors in a tournament of wrestling, jumping, dancing, and in several unique games peculiar to the islanders, in every way acquitting themselves in the most creditable manner. When the games were finished, Guacanagari presented Columbus with a necklace of gold pellets, deftly united, and a crown of the same material. He also gave his distinguished guest a small wooden image, supposed to possess some potent influence, the eyes, ears and tongue of which were made of gold hammered into thin sheets, and received in return a handsome mirror, an ewer, wash-pitcher, a shirt, and pair of gloves.

The sailors, while not sharing in the gifts bestowed by the chief, profited equally well by exchanging with the natives hawk's-bells, glass trinkets, and other gew-gaws, for pieces of gold, cotton and provisions. To this advantageous traffic was the added pleasure of the reverential regard in which the Indians held their guests, esteeming them, as they did, as beings so superior by birth that their advent must have been from the sky.

There was nothing for the sailors now to do but wander at will about the island and enjoy its many blessings; where pleasing and restful conditions abounded; where ambition was satiated by the prodigality of nature, the sensuousness of air, the mellifluousness of flowering sweets and delicious fruitage; where the smile of peace, the laugh of content, the hand of plenty, diffused universal joy and made life a dream of pleasure.

Columbus was himself so impressed by the beauty and advantage of these surroundings that he decided to effect at once a colonization of the island, and to this end he called for volunteers to remain as a nucleus until he could return to Spain and bring additional force. Much to his gratification, a considerable number indicated their willingness to accept the conditions offered. They were the more ready to embrace this opportunity to spend their lives in elegant ease, because of peculiar circumstances: the perils of a return voyage were not without effect, especially since only one vessel, the *Niña*, remained, and she the smallest and frailest of the three; but there was the more influential condition of intimacy which had been established between many of the sailors and the maidens of the islands. We may hope that a few at least of the connections thus formed were of the heart, and that a consecration of these informal marriages was found in the ennobling emotions and sentiments that inspired them, without which the most sacred of human bonds is profaned.

A FORT AND COLONY ESTABLISHED IN HAYTI.

Forty-two men having signified their consent to remain on the island as colonists, Columbus set about the immediate construction of a fort, in the building of which the timbers of the stranded *Santa Maria* were used for a block-house and tower and her guns were recovered and mounted to complete the equipment. The fort thus established, as well as the harbor which it defended, was named in honor of The Nativity, *La Natividad*, the command of which was given to Diego de Arana, who was also appointed governor. Among the colonists were several artisans, including a carpenter, cooper, tailor, gunsmith, and also a physician, and the comfort and necessities of the whole were carefully provided for by leaving a quantity of wine, provisions, clothing and merchandise for barter, all of which were stored in a natural cave of considerable dimensions over which the fort was built. Besides these there was a liberal supply of small arms, which the colonists were cautioned to wear against surprise from invaders, and there was also a quantity of seed to sow in the land.

Having thus secured the safety of the colonists, Columbus delivered a touching address, in which he sought to impress them with the responsibilities which they were about to assume as the first white settlers in the new world, and the deep sense of thankfulness which they should feel towards God for the watchful care and tender mercies He had

shown them. He exhorted them to be diligent in the propagation of the Christian religion among the poor natives who had so hospitably received them, and to yield loyal obedience to the officers appointed over them. He counselled them particularly, in their intercourse with the natives, to observe the rights of all, to practice a pious continence in regard to women, to keep inviolate the bond of brotherhood in which their safety lay, and



GUACANAGARI TAKING HIS LEAVE OF COLUMBUS.

to remain within the jurisdiction of the cacique, to whose favors they owed so much and who would extend to them his protection.

On the 2d of January, 1493, Columbus gave a banquet to Guacanagari and took this last occasion of manifesting to him his appreciation of the many kindnesses which had been conferred upon him and his men since landing on the island. He accordingly gave the cacique a scarlet mantle, a pair of buskins, a silver ring and a necklace of beads.

After bestowing these gifts he embraced the chief with such tenderness that tears came to the eyes of both, and amid such emotions the two parted.

A strong shore wind detained the *Niña* until the morning of January 4, when the final partings occurred, and the brave little ship lifted her sails and started to traverse the wide sea that separated her passengers from the shores of Spain. Many of these were gladdened with thoughts of home and waiting friends, and there were others—natives of Hispaniola—who had consented to brave the dangers of the ocean world for a sight of that country whence the Spaniards came, and which they believed must be some celestial clime bordering the region of the sun.



CHAPTER VII.

A MEETING WITH THE DESERTER.



RAND even to the fulfilment of his first ambition was the discovery that would set his name on the very spire of Fame's temple, yet this supreme accomplishment could not totally repress the sense of present danger. How, then, can we estimate the misgivings, the hopes, the passions which must have agitated Columbus when the emerald banks of Hayti faded from his view, and a vast expanse of water spread away, suggestive of storm and peril that lay between him and the shores of Spain? There was elation for him, however, in the flattering belief that the colony planted in the New World would prove a nucleus around which would gather not only a glorious prestige, but from which would spread a great wave of Christianity and commerce to perpetuate his fame; and there was joy in the anticipation of vast accumulation of gold, which he believed the colonists would surely find on the island in quantities to load many ships.

In this enrichment of his sovereigns he was to receive an eighth, which would enable him to accomplish his primal ambition. Lifted into ecstasy by his ever active imagination, while contemplating the golden sands and mountains of Cabique, a glorious vision filled his soul. The coffers of Spain were bursting with stores of gold, which inspired Christendom with new resolution to attempt a recovery of the Holy Land. What the Crusaders through two centuries had been unable to accomplish, should now be done under the gilded banners of Castile and Aragon. See the marshalling of a numberless host, whose armors dazzle from afar like dew drops in the grass; whose flaming falchions cleave the sun and flash its lustre back in gleams scintillant. In God's name, under the legend of the cross, he sees the marching army, hears the inspiring blare of trumpet, and sights the standards of Spain, beside which waves in glory his own banner, emblazoned with devices that proclaim the splendor of his achievements: five anchors on a field of azure, map of the sea, thrice turreted, crenelated tower, and rampant lion. Oh, what a brilliant dream! Alas, there is no beauty like that of dying day, when the palaces of cloud-land are set aflame with rays of a blood-red sun. There is no pall so great as when the fires die out and leave banks of blackened clouds rolling on the bosom of threatening night. So, from his dream of chivalry—of glory full attained—he awoke at last to find the vision faded, and that all his hopes were dead.

If he was transported by the anticipation of gains which he believed must come from his discoveries, he was dejected by harassments that sprang from fear, doubts and dangers. The one thorn of his misgivings was the contemplation of the results of Alonzo Pinzon's deser-

tion. Twice had reports been brought to him while on Hispaniola that the *Pinta* had been sighted hovering near that land. As often did he send a boat in anxious search of the missing vessel, but all efforts to find her had been vain. Two months had now elapsed since the separation, and there was justification for the alarm that Columbus felt. The *Pinta* may have been lost on some dangerous reef; the crew may have perished or been cast upon some desolate shore. But there was yet a graver fear. Pinzon had furnished a vessel from his own means; he was a skilful navigator, and withal an ambitious man. Chafing under subordination to a foreigner, he may have had a cunning purpose in abandoning the expedition. His ship was the fastest sailer and the most seaworthy; might he not have designed a scheme to rob Columbus of the honors of discovery and appropriate them to himself; may he not have sailed away for Spain bearing the first news of a world beyond

the sea, and conceived some specious story to magnify his deeds and disparage the Admiral, whose reputation a thousand enemies had been vainly trying to destroy?

But in the midst of these gloomy reflections Columbus was suddenly aroused by a glad cry set up at once by many sailors: "A ship! A ship!" Looking towards the north, there, sure enough, he saw the white sails of a vessel heading towards the shore of Hayti, and a few moments later discovered to him that the ship was none other than the *Pinta*, so long missing. Turning about, Columbus pointed the *Niña* towards a small bay, in which both vessels soon cast their anchors, and an eager scramble quickly followed, to exchange welcomes and congratulations. Pinzon paid his respects to Columbus as soon as he could reach the *Niña* and excused his desertion by a story such as might have been anticipated, though manifestly lacking the prime element of veracity. He claimed that vio-



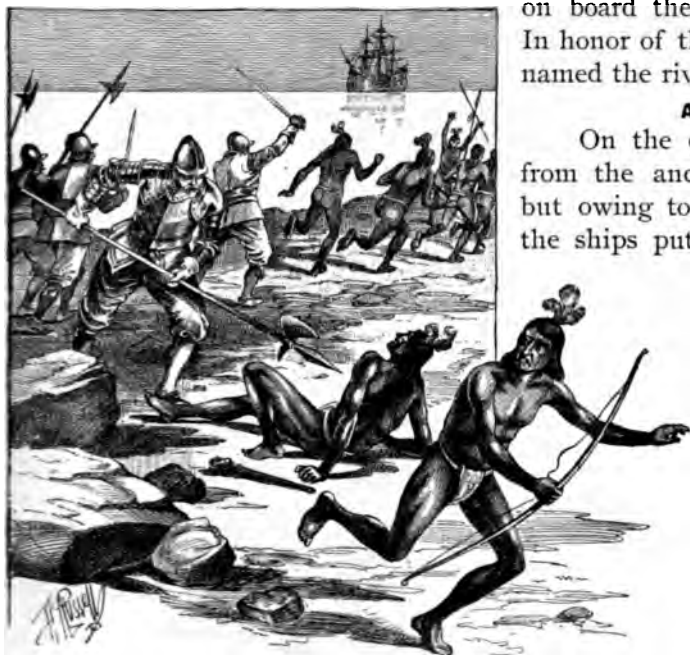
COLUMBUS' COAT OF ARMS.

lent weather on November 20th had driven him far out of his course, despite all his efforts, and losing sight of the other ships he had spent the time, up to this meeting, in a vain attempt to join them. For prudential reasons Columbus suppressed his feelings and appeared to hear with satisfaction the explanations and apologies of his subordinate, whose desertion he knew was inspired by selfishness and avarice, as already explained. Besides this, it was presently learned that Pinzon had put in at one of the bays of San Domingo, where he had opened a traffic with the natives, from whom he had obtained a considerable quantity of gold, the half of which he gave his crew as a bribe for their silence.

But even with this evidence of his perfidy, Columbus wisely chose to receive Pinzon with appearances of gratification and pardon, since he was a man of wealth and influence

in Palos, to whom a majority of the sailors, being his countrymen, were devotedly attached and would not have brooked a deprivation of his command or his treatment as a mutineer.

During a stay of three days in the bay where the ships met, preparations were completed for a return trip to Spain, but just before departure, many glittering particles of mica were discovered in the mouth of the river Yaqui, near by, which were believed to be gold, and a considerable collection of the worthless metal was made and carried on board the vessels for transportation to Spain. In honor of the supposed fabulous find, Columbus named the river Rio del Oro.



SPANIARDS REPULSING THE NATIVES.

A FIGHT WITH THE NATIVES.

On the 9th of January, departure was made from the anchorage where the vessels had met, but owing to contrary winds on the following day the ships put into a harbor where Martin Alonso Pinzon had lain some time before trafficking with the natives. Here it was learned that Pinzon had seized six islanders, among the number being two beautiful girls, whom he designed to carry back to Spain and sell as slaves. But whether prompted by jealousy or humanity, Columbus ordered them released and conciliated the outraged natives by liberal donations of hawk's bells, beads, mirrors and cloths.

Proceeding again from the place of this last detention, the ships rounded a promontory and on the second day came to land where a new and more warlike tribe of aborigines was discovered, which Las Casas describes as wearing long hair and decorating their bodies with paint and feathers. They were well armed with war clubs, swords of hardened palm-wood, and bows and arrows of formidable size, so that in many respects they resembled the North American Indians.

Efforts to establish intercourse with these fierce islanders were not at first successful, and some curious beliefs directly obtained among the Spaniards respecting their cannibal propensities. At length, however, a party of sailors succeeded in bartering several trinkets for a few specimens of the native weapons, but when they attempted to return with their prizes the sailors were fiercely attacked in an effort made by the islanders to recover the articles which they had exchanged. In defending themselves the Spaniards wounded two of the natives, who retired sullenly, but with an exhibition of surprise rather than of fear. This rupture in what, for a while, bid fair for the establishment of amicable relations, was repaired on the following day by peaceful overtures made by Columbus, who, distributing a quantity of presents among the islanders, at length induced the cacique of these people to visit him on board the *Niña*, where he was most generously entertained, and requited this kind treatment by sending to the ships a large supply of fruits and vegetables.

Spreading his sails again, Columbus went in quest of the country of the Caribs and Amazons, and being variously directed by all the natives with whom he came in contact,

his course was in as many directions, until the sailors became bitter in their objections to further explorations which prolonged their absence from home without bringing any substantial benefits. In deference to their wishes, therefore, Columbus turned the prow of his vessel eastward for the shores of Spain.

Up to this time, for a period of six months, the weather had been propitious, nor did it yet become heavy, but the vessels now encountered trade winds blowing from the east, which compelled them to tack and beat about until the sailors became confused as to the point of their course. It was also directly discovered that the *Pinta* was falling behind by reason of the neglect of her commander to repair her foremast, which had been broken during his independent cruise about Hayti. This caused Columbus great delay, as he had to proceed under half sail in order to keep company with the laboring consort. At the slow pace the vessels were now making the sailors were able to amuse themselves by leaping overboard, swimming around the ships, and in taking great numbers of fish, which constantly played about the caravels in immense shoals. A large shark was also captured, which lent excitement to the other pleasures of the sailors, who fared sumptuously on fresh fish, and the flesh of the shark, which they declared was most palatable.

A TERRIBLE STORM.

The last days of January slipped by with no more important incidents, and in the doubtfulness of their course and position, Columbus and his officers began to debate as



IN THE CALM LATITUDE.

to what part of the coast of Europe they were likely to strike, a subject rendered particularly confusing to the sailing officers by reason of the false reckonings made by him on his outward voyage. But every prospect continued auspicious, with no dissatisfaction save in the slow-

ness at which the vessels were moving, until the afternoon of February 12th, when a howling wind, swelling sea, and lowering clouds became nature's prophecy of an approaching storm.

Before night set in a roaring tempest came swooping out of the northeast and struck the little vessels with a fury that threatened their destruction; but Columbus had prepared them for the battle by taking in all sail, thus leaving them to run before the blast with bare poles.

The first onslaught of the wind was followed by a lull, in which the storm gathered up all its reserved forces and then repeated the charge with greatly increased rage, heeling the ships and hurling mad billows in tumultuous impetuosity against their frail sides. As darkness curtained the lashing waves the roar of the bounding sea was drowned by a terrific bombardment from heaven's artillery, and continuous flashes of lightning sent terror to the souls of the poor encompassed ones. The anger of nature seemed turned against the ships that were bearing home with them report of a new world beyond the evening gates of the sun, as if jealous of a discovery destined to turn the chivalry of

Europe from contemplating a rescue of the Holy Land, to the reclamation of another continent, where, though over bloody highways, commerce and Christianity would march together to higher attainments than they had ever before reached. Down in the cavernous depths, or on the spray-capped crests of the billows, the cry of despair was mingled with the voice of prayer, but there came no other answer than wild dash of surge, deafening peal of thunder, or blinding flashes riving the cimmerian vault of rolling clouds where all the fiends of fury appeared to be holding carnival.

And thus the dreadful night wore away in tumultuary distress, and morning broke with no pity for the horrified sailors. In the riot of wind and wave the two vessels were separated, and the crews of each now contemplated the destruction of the other. When light of day came stealing down the east it was only to expose a sea lashing in impetuous anger, and a sky black and ominous of death, with never a rift anywhere in the dreadfulness of an awful surrounding. The little ship, poorly equipped and sorely out of repair, had not borne these buffetings without serious impairment, and before she had weathered this first night of storm her seams began to open, thus multiplying the chances of her foundering and carrying all on board into graves where winding sheets are not necessary to corses nor the service of sexton essential in the obsequies.

DESPAIR SUGGESTS VOWS OF PENANCE.

All prayer being unavailing, Columbus, still strong in his religious faith, had recourse to penance, feeling that his own and the sins of those who composed his crew, must have brought upon them God's wrath in the form of storm visitation. First repeating his vows before the image of the Holy Virgin, he prepared lots by selecting dried beans equal to the number of those on board, upon one of which a cross was made; then exacting an agreement that he who should draw the marked bean would, if his life were spared, make a pilgrimage to the shrine of the Virgin of Guadalupe and bear thither a wax taper of five pounds weight, placed the beans in a cap and the lottery began. Each one was to draw in the order of his rank, and it happened that Columbus, being first, drew the marked bean. A second vow was then taken, that he upon whom the lot should next fall would make a holy pilgrimage to the Chapel of Our Lady of Loretto. At this second drawing the obligation fell on Pedro de Villa, who, being too poor to bear the expenses of such a journey, Columbus generously offered to discharge them himself. A third time lots were drawn, he upon whom the sign should fall vowing to repair to the Church of Santa Clara, at Moguer, where he was to participate in High Mass, and spend the entire night in prayer before the altar. This lot also devolved upon Columbus by his drawing the marked bean. But the obligations thus self-imposed were not yet completed, for the storm continuing, without any signs of abatement, the entire crew registered a vow that if all were spared, they would, at the first place of landing, proceed in procession, with no other garment upon their bodies than a shirt, to the nearest shrine, and there offer up thanksgivings for their deliverance. We cannot frame a reasonable excuse for such a vow, beyond the supposition that it involved mortification, and was



imposed as a sign of extreme humility ; but whatever the reason, certainly the feelings of those whom the half-naked sailors might meet at the shrine were not considered, and without irreverence we may pause to wonder if such a display would have been pleasing to the sight of the Blessed Virgin.

But all this manifestation of deep piety failed to lull the storm beatings, or bring peace to the angry waters, which continued to surge with a fury appalling in its intensity. The fears that had beset the sailors now thoroughly possessed their Admiral, who, considering his destruction as inevitable, began, as best he could, to concert means for preserving the results of his discoveries. It is pathetic to follow the workings of his sublime intelligence in the hour of his supreme peril and resignation to fate. The concerns of his own life were of less moment to him now than were those of his children and patrons. The somewhat consoling reflection came to him that if by any means a knowledge of his deeds could be communicated to their majesties of Spain, then his two sons, Diego and Fernando, would receive from these sovereigns all the emoluments and honors stipulated in the contracts under which he had sailed. To conceive the idea was to execute a plan, in pursuance of which he hurriedly composed a sketch of his voyage and the great discoveries which he had made, and wrapping the precious parchment in a waxed cloth, which in turn was incased in wax, committed it to a water-tight cask, and cast it into the sea, hoping that favoring currents might carry it to some friendly shore. To insure the delivery of the packet, in case of its recovery from the waves, he directed it to the Queen of Castile, and appended a promissory obligation of a thousand ducats (equal to as many dollars of American money) to any one who should restore it unopened to her Majesty.

But not yet content with the chance which he thus provided, Columbus made a copy of the sketch, which he likewise enclosed in a barrel, but instead of entrusting it directly to the sea fastened it securely to the poop of his ship, so that in case of wreck it might be borne upon the bosom of the sea until found by some passing vessel in the future.

A PACKAGE WHICH THE OCEAN REFUSES TO GIVE UP.

What a secret for the ocean to so long possess; what a precious thing for historians to acquire. To this day has hope continued in its ultimate recovery, and since its preciousness cannot be computed, enthusiasts still picture the results of its restoration from the sea. To find this parchment now, would be like the recovery of a letter written by Richard the Lion Heart in the German prison, or the restoration of the original manuscripts of the Pandects of Justinian; or the notes of Demosthenes for his great oration on the crown; or the Hebrew Ark of the Covenant.

So valuable would be such a possession that reports of the finding of the cask have been published more than once to excite the credulous, or amuse the wise. As late as 1852, directly after that unvarnished but universal historian—the newspaper correspondent—had been born into the world, one of that inventive craft, whose business it is to create what may not be discovered, contributed to an English paper an elaborate story describing the details of the recovery of the barrel by the captain of a Boston ship named the *Chieftain*, who, it was declared, found it embedded deeply in the sand on the coast of Africa. For a while the fiction was accepted as true, and even Lamartine adopted it as a verity, only to repudiate it later, however, when the hoax was exploded.

The prayers, vows and precautions which so long seemed unavailing, were followed by relief towards evening of the third day, when, with the declining sun there appeared promising streaks of light cleaving retiring clouds, and when night came on the merry stars were revealed as if laughing with joy for the danger passed. But though the sky was now

serene, deep heavings of the sea continued, rendering progress slow and painful, while anxiety for the safety of the *Pinta* still deeply concerned Columbus, whose dreadful anticipations were reflected by all of his crew.

On the morning following the subsidence of the storm, February 15th, Rui Garcia perceived by the faint light of breaking day the dark outline of an island towards the north-east, and all on board the *Niña* were quickly apprised of the discovery. Many different opinions were hazarded as to the land thus seen, but the claim of Columbus, that it was one of the Azores, was presently confirmed by a close approach to shore, when the characteristic peaks of Santa Maria became unmistakable. But the sea was still so turbulent that anchorage could not be attempted, and for two days the vessel beat about, but stood off the shore, and when the anchor was at last cast on the evening of the 17th, the cable parted, compelling the *Niña* to lie to until morning.

SAVED AT LAST!

It was a singular fact that landing was at length accomplished at the same islands from which departure was made in the preceding autumn, and that it was the frailest of the three vessels which succeeded in returning to these Portuguese possessions, out of the very throat of the most violent storm that had been known in the memory of man.

No sooner had the *Niña* effected an anchorage in the mouth of an inviting bay, than many of the inhabitants came out to welcome the voyagers, bringing such provisions as the island produced, and were regaled in turn with astounding stories of discovery and adventure in the New World.

In fulfilment of the vow which the crew had solemnly recorded in an hour of imminent peril, Columbus, who was suffering severely from an attack of gout, besides exhaustion from exposure of a three days' unbroken watch, sent half of all his sailors to a hermitage not far from the anchorage to perform penance, while he sought a needed rest until their return. True to their holy obligation, the Spaniards went ashore, barefoot and with no more clothing than a short shirt, insufficient to hide their nakedness. Then, forming in procession, they marched towards the chapel, where a priest was engaged to perform mass. On the way, however, they were intercepted by a squad of soldiers, sent by Juan de Castaneda, governor of the island, to apprehend them for outraging the proprieties of all civilization by thus exposing their nakedness to the rabble of villagers who followed close at their heels with hootings and objurgations. The arrest, as some authorities maintain, was not made until the Spaniards gained the chapel, and were in the act of performing their vows before the altar, when the governor himself appeared and urged the soldiers to obey his orders, who then conducted the sailors to the garrison prison.

TROUBLE WITH THE PORTUGUESE.

The long absence of those of his crew who had gone on shore gave Columbus such uneasiness that he moved his ship to a position commanding a view of the hermitage, hoping thereby to ascertain the cause, and to be in a position to afford his men protection in case it was necessary. Scarcely had he dropped anchor again when the governor was seen riding down the hill at the head of a troop of horsemen, who were able to approach sufficiently near the *Niña* to give a hail, and directly a boat was pushed out which conveyed the governor on board the vessel. An interview then followed in which Castaneda informed Columbus of the arrest of his sailors, and that he had acted under commands of the King of Portugal. This developed a serious condition of affairs, which Columbus could not help regarding as a hostile act, and he accordingly adopted vigorous measures to resist arrest, believing either that Spain and Portugal were at war, or that jealousy had

prompted King John to concert means for his destruction. The defiant air of Castaneda gave color of reason to either assumption, and prevented an understanding of the real situation. The wind now increasing strongly off shore, Columbus was compelled to hoist his anchor and move out to sea again, where for two days he was buffeted about in great danger and with only half a crew to manage the ship. On the 22d the weather moderated sufficiently to permit a return to his first anchorage, where he was visited by a Portuguese notary and ten priests. The interview which followed was of a more conciliatory character, the officer explaining that the governor had taken the Spaniards for pirates, which at that time infested every sea, but told Columbus if his commission and ship's papers were regular, the sailors would be promptly liberated and proper apologies made. The misapprehensions and suspicions of both parties were thus relieved by an exhibition of the letters patent; those under arrest were set at liberty, and upon their return to the *Niña* Columbus and the others of his crew proceeded to fulfil their vows, according to the conditions of their self-imposed obligation.

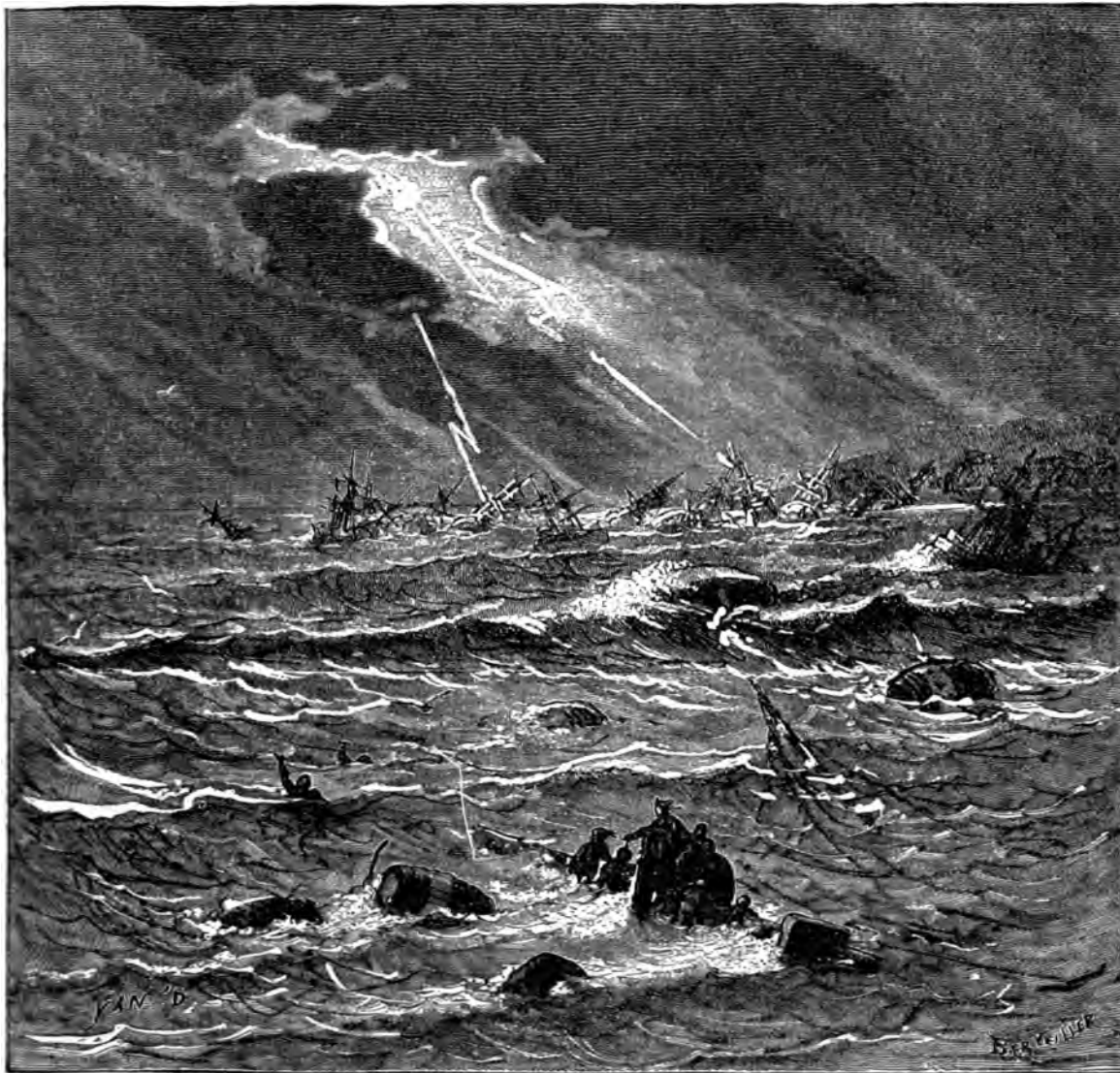
ANOTHER TERRIBLE STORM ASSAILS THE SHIP.

On the 24th of February, the Admiral, having replenished his stores, and made some necessary repairs to the ship, started again on his homeward voyage. For three days after leaving Santa Maria the weather was fair, and such speed was made that he reckoned the distance to Cape St. Vincent was not more than a thousand miles. Whoever studies carefully the movements of great enterprises, and discovering often at the very crisis of the thing about to be accomplished the opposition of adverse forces, marshalled as if in a battalion, and bearing down vehemently to prevent by sheer hostility and elemental war the completion of the work in hand, may almost become superstitious lest nature herself have confederated with diabolical agencies to thwart and ruin the hopes of men. It seemed in the present case that sky and sea and tempest, over and above the enmity of the human race, had conspired in the last hour to prevent the success of the great enterprise, to hurl back and send to the oblivion of ocean caverns the glorious discoveries which Columbus had made in the occident. On the night of February 27th, the storm god swooped out of the west again with fell fury in his breath, and struck the little vessel with such terrific force that every timber in her groaned with the impact. Yet she rode before the blast without material injury until the night of March 2d, when the gale increased to such violence that in a trice the little sails still spread were burst and blown into tatters, while the vessel was plunged so deeply into the sea that it appeared she could never rise. Great guns from the heavenly ramparts boomed their responses to the hissing of fiery dragons vaulting across the skies. Clouds boiled like thick vapors from witches' cauldrons until they seemed to take on shapes of demons, wraiths, monsters of hellish mien and Satanic hate, while dashing billows leaped up and shook their white locks defiant of the powers of air. So intense were the paroxysms of infuriate nature that all the world appeared to be torn asunder and chaos had grasped the sea in its withering hand. In the darkness that came as a mantle to hide the destruction of the elements, hope nearly perished, and but for the sustaining strength of pious faith Columbus would have abandoned himself to the fate which appeared inevitable. In this hour of dreadful peril he had recourse to the means which seemed to avail him in an extremity scarcely more hopeless. Yielding to his soul's impulses, he mentally resolved to perform new penances, and assembling the crew, as best he could despite the plunging of the ship, he produced the cap of beans and bade each to draw one therefrom. Most strange coincidence, when the drawing was completed he found the marked bean in his own hand again: whereupon he took a vow that if spared to gain

the shore he would make a pilgrimage in bare feet to the shrine of Santa Maria de la Cueva (or Cinta), in Huelva.

SAFE IN THE PROVIDENCE OF GOD.

Whatever the cause, though devout persons will always consider it as a mark of propitiated deity, when the morning of March 3d broke, there was visible along the horizon of a leaden sky the shore of Portugal, against which breakers were dashing mountain high. A



EFFECTS OF THE GREAT STORM OF MARCH, 1493.

cheer went up at this sight of land, but it was quickly hushed by a sudden realization of danger that broke in frantic dashing of huge billows along the rocky shore. So all day the *Niña* held to sea, bounding up and down on the great waves, until the following morning the promontory of Cintra, near Lisbon, was recognized, when an effort was made to enter the estuary of the Tagus, which was accomplished some time in the afternoon.

The inhabitants of the town of Cascaes, and along the shore, had watched with painful

suspense the dangerous buffeting of the strange vessel, every moment, for many hours, expecting its engulfment, and when at last a safe anchorage was reached thousands of persons came down to the bay and put off in boats to offer welcomes and congratulations, which changed to praise and thanksgiving when they learned that the stranger was the *Niña*, with Columbus and his followers, bearing tidings from a new world. Directly the anchor was let go, Columbus despatched a letter to King John, who was then with his court at Valparaiso, thirty miles from Lisbon, requesting permission to enter and refit at the port of Lisbon, and asking protection during his stay in Portuguese waters, at the same time describing, in the briefest way, the discoveries which he had made. Before a reply could be received, however, Columbus became involved in trouble with Alonzo de Acuna, commander of a man-of-war which lay in the roadstead, who peremptorily summoned the Admiral to report in person the object of his entering Portuguese waters. To this command the Admiral returned a defiant answer, but sent his commission bearing the autographs of Ferdinand and Isabella, which had the most pronounced effect. Thus learning his name, rank and mission, Acuna immediately returned his profound acknowledgments and proceeded to pay a homage to the returned explorer as flattering as one brave man may pay another. Launching his largest boat, Acuna decorated it with bunting, in which Portuguese and Spanish banners were blended, and taking on board his military band, paid a visit of imposing display to Columbus, to whom he offered his services in the most generous spirit.

ARRIVAL AT THE ESTUARY OF THE TAGUS.

The excitement which followed fast upon the report of Columbus' return and discoveries was indescribably intense, largely increased by the belief that his escape from the storms that had prevailed with unexampled fury must be due to a special manifestation of providence in his behalf. The people made haste to inform him that no other such tempest had occurred within the memory of man. Scarcely any shipping along the coast of Europe had escaped destruction, in proof of which the shores were strewn with wrecks of vessels; and yet the *Niña*, small and frail as she was, had survived all the wrathful violence of wind and waves, to bring back results of the grandest effort ever undertaken by an ambitious mind.

The friendliness and enthusiasm of those that had gathered about the estuary of the Tagus was presently re-enforced by receipt of a message from King John, in which the requests made by Columbus were not only granted, but he was complimented in the most flattering words of praise, and urgently invited to visit the court at its sitting in Valparaiso. The same messenger that handed this cordial communication to Columbus, also bore a patronizing letter from the King, directed to his officers, ordering that the Admiral and his crew be furnished without cost everything which they might require.

Recognizing the graciousness and apparent sincerity of the King, Columbus was resolved to accept the invitation, and accordingly set out, accompanied by one of his pilots, acting as *aid-de-camp*, for Valparaiso. But scarcely had he started when he was met by several officers of the King's household, who had been sent to serve as his retinue and escort him on the journey. Having started at a late hour, it was necessary for Columbus to pass the night at Sacamben, where, to his surprise, a princely entertainment was provided for him, at which the entire town united in demonstrations in his honor.

The reception which King John accorded Columbus on his arrival at Valparaiso was as magnificent as would have characterized the welcome of the most powerful prince in all Europe. The most distinguished ambassador may not sit, or stand with covered head in the presence of royalty, but so great was his courtesy towards, and favor for Columbus, that the King treated him with the most cordial consideration regardless of

rank, and conducting him to a seat directly before the throne requested the great navigator to recite the story of his wonderful discoveries.

COLUMBUS HAS AN AUDIENCE WITH THE KING.

The interest of King John was as intense as his regret was poignant, and he followed the narrative of Columbus as one might do who realized that he had lost a world through his own folly ; when he made his first comment on the results of the discoveries, it was to betray the jealousy and chagrin which disturbed his mind. Said he, "Your enterprise well deserves the praise of all mankind, but I feel the greater joy because, according to the treaty which we concluded with Castile, 1479, and the Papal Bull of partition, the discovery of these new countries, and their conquest, pertain to the crown of Portugal of right." To this unwarranted inference, which clearly exposed the King's feelings, Columbus deferentially replied that he had not read the treaty and was not informed as to its nature ; but that acting under instructions from the Spanish sovereigns, which had taken the form of an order published in all the seaports of Andalusia, he had carefully avoided trenching upon Portuguese possessions. At this, the King cut him short by reminding him that the question would be settled without the intervention of his services as umpire.

The interview thus terminated for that day, and Columbus was given over to the attention and care of the highest officers of the court, but on the following day, which was Sunday, King John invited Columbus to another conversation, during which the monarch asked many questions, manifestly with the view of informing himself as fully as possible concerning the inhabitants, soil, climate, products, landscape, and, above all, the route to the new world, and the distance at which it lay ; to all of which questions a frank reply was returned, and at the conclusion of this audience Columbus was dismissed and the King summoned his Council for a conference. What transpired at this deliberation can only be conjectured, but nearly all authorities agree that a project for robbing Columbus of his discoveries was discussed, and that some of the more perfidious counsellors even recommended his assassination. But such a proposal is so monstrous that, in view of the gracious attitude which the King publicly assumed to manifest his appreciation of Columbus, as well as his subsequent generous conduct, the assertion appears preposterous. Sinister designs may have been, and no doubt were, harbored against the Admiral by his many enemies, some of whom were very near the Portuguese Court, but the King was too chivalrous to entertain such iniquitous desire. He no doubt sincerely believed, in the imperfect knowledge of geography at the time, that some of the rights of Portugal, which had been guaranteed to her by the Papal Bull, and accorded to the infant Don Henry, had been infringed by the explorations of Columbus, but he was too shrewd a monarch to believe that such right, if violated, could be preserved through the assassination of one who was but an instrument or agent of the Spanish sovereigns.

But while opposed to personal outrage, King John was open to other proposals, one of which flattered his expectations as appearing to provide a means for acquiring peaceable possession of the new lands beyond the sea. The suggestion which found favor was that the King should at once equip a powerful squadron, able to maintain itself against Spain, seize the Portuguese sailors who had returned with Columbus, who would serve as guides, and thus equipped, send the fleet to the new lands to hold them against all claims of previous discovery. In the event of rupture between Portugal and Spain, King John could justify his act by the treaty of 1479, and call upon the Pope to defend the Bull guaranteeing certain rights to Don Henry.

KING JOHN CONCEIVES A PLAN TO ROB COLUMBUS OF HIS DISCOVERIES.

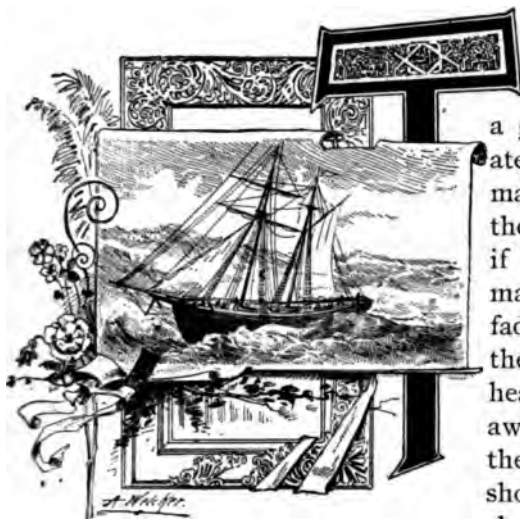
This crafty advice so pleased the King that he immediately resolved to adopt it as the basis of his policy. To enable him the better to carry it into effect, without at once arousing the hostility of Spain, he abated none of his courtesies to Columbus, but rather increased them. When the Admiral, therefore, expressed a desire to proceed to Spain, King John offered him a large escort to conduct him thither by land ; but Columbus desired to return to Palos first by water, so as to discharge his crew at that port, where many of them lived, and accordingly declined the monarch's proposal. But that he might not part from Columbus without further marks of his favor, the King presented him with several valuable gifts and sent Don Martin de Moron and several lords of the court to conduct him safely to his vessel.

The Queen, who was meanwhile sojourning at the monastery of Villa Franca, sent word to Columbus to call upon her while on his way back to the coast, which he did, and entertained her with recital of his discoveries and adventures in the new world. After the interview with her Majesty he continued on to the Tagus, and on the following day set sail for Palos, where he arrived in safety about noon, March 15th, after an absence from that port of two hundred and twenty-five days. Thus was accomplished in the brief space of seven and one-half months, the most important voyage, because most resultful, in all the annals of mankind ; one which crowns the brow of civilization with the most imperishable chaplet that fame has ever bestowed ; which, next to the salvation of the world, was the gift of a new one, and thus next to the prophet stands the discoverer.



CHAPTER VIII.

RECEIVING THE PLAUDITS OF A GRATEFUL NATION.



THE city of Palos, from whose quays the Columbian argonauts had set out on their great mission, stood smiling at a sea which, now tamed by a gentle breeze, lapped her feet with the affectionate joy that a hunter's hound caresses the hand of its master. Across the wide expanse of fathomless waters the declining sun stretched his fingers of warmth as if to greet with congratulation and welcome the mariner who had explored the lands kissed by his fading beams. To howling storm had succeeded the laughter of zephyrs, and dashing wave-beats that heaved with fury against her rock-bound coast now fell away like one ashamed of anger, and came stealing up the beach leaving a lace-like tracery of foam upon the shore. This peaceful scene of nature, where sea, and sky, and landscape had blended in a harmony that

charmed the sensuous appetites of man in the soft and sun-lighted climes of Southern Spain, appeared like nature's preparation to receive with triumphal rejoicing the return of that great Admiral, who, like Ulysses, had survived a thousand ocean perils, but who, unlike that heroic Ithacan, had brought back his followers, and the story of a new world found where the sun falls into the sea.

When the white but tattered sails of the *Niña* appeared in the offing, bearing towards the gates of Palos, excitement in the city—whither the news of Columbus' return had preceded him—became unbounded. Many wondered what fate had befallen the *Pinta*, but in the general belief long entertained that all had perished, there was unspeakable joy at the survival of even one vessel of the exploring squadron. So when the *Niña* dropped anchor before Palos, thousands flocked to the docks in their eagerness to meet friends or relatives who had sailed with Columbus, or to hear the dread story of how they had perished. One of the first to descry the incoming vessel was the faithful Juan Pérez, the Father Guardian of La Rabida, who had watched with true paternal concern for many days from the upper window of the convent for the return of his friend. The Father's long deferred hopes being at last realized, he rushed with inexpressible delight towards the landing place, where he received Columbus as he came on shore with wide open arms, and raised his eyes in thankfulness to heaven for the blessings of that hour, and for the gift from God, through his instrument, of a new world. But faithful to the vows he had taken when peril was greatest, Columbus hastened to the chapel of Palos, there to return thanks and give praises to heaven for the success which had attended his expedition, and for the Providence that had permitted his safe return.

De Lorgues says that Columbus was not alone in his devotions before the shrine of the Virgin, but that the sacrilegious interruption of their vows by the Portuguese Governor on Santa Maria required its full accomplishment now, and that accordingly all the seamen, bare-footed and in their shirts, from the cabin boy even to the Admiral, in the piteous garb of shipwrecked mariners, went in procession through the streets of Palos, to the chapel of La Rabida, and there offered their supplications in unison.

RETURN OF THE PINTA, AND DISGRACE OF PINZON.

While at his devotions Columbus heard a cry of joy raised outside of the chapel, and rising from his knees, learned with rapturous delight that the *Pinta* had been descried, and was now making her way across the bay towards the mouth of the Odiel. The pilot of the *Pinta* was the first to reach the shore, who in response to the urgings of Columbus gave report of the circumstances that had attended his ship after her separation from the *Niña*. The sails of the *Pinta* had been rent in tatters by the irresistible blasts of the storm, while her rudder was crippled by the powerful impact of heavy seas. Thus, practically helpless, she was driven into the Bay of Biscay. For a while she appeared to be doomed to certain destruction upon the breakers, but Pinzon, with his usual skill and apparently providential help, succeeded in casting an anchor which happily held her off the shore, where the vessel rode for more than a day before he considered it safe to make an effort to put into the harbor of Bayonne. On the 8th of March the storm had sufficiently subsided to permit of Pinzon bringing his shattered bark into the harbor, where, considering his situation, and believing that the *Niña* and her crew had undoubtedly perished, he proceeded to assert his claim to the honors and fame of the expedition. Accordingly, he ventured to compose a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella, setting forth the principal incidents of the voyage, as he chose to relate them, and of the finding of the Indies, in which he claimed to have been the principal discoverer. This communication he despatched to the Spanish Court at Barcelona, and then put to sea, arriving at Palos within a few hours after the return of Columbus. Having heard this report of the actions of Pinzon, Columbus expressed his surprise that the commander had not as yet come on shore, to which the pilot replied that discovering the *Niña* safe in the anchorage of Palos, Pinzon was greatly surprised and chagrined, and believing that his bad faith would soon be revealed, had taken his boat and gone privately to shore. Effort was made then to find him, but he kept himself in privacy, determined not to meet Columbus, pondering over the perfidy which he had exhibited, and which was soon to break upon his head in the fullest power of smitten conscience.

In a few days there came in answer to his communication sent from Bayonne a letter from the sovereigns, who, hearing of the Admiral's arrival, and perceiving the falsity of Pinzon's heart and purpose, upbraided him for his conduct and forbade him to come into their presence. The proud spirit of the captain gave way under this stroke. He sank under the unspeakable grief and mortification which this rebuke inspired, and in a few days died, as every one believed, of a broken heart.

The defection of Martin Alonzo Pinzon is not without many examples in history, and considering the avaricious and condemnable ambitions of the age, as well as the attendant circumstances, his attempt to supplant Columbus may be partially condoned. It must be admitted that to him was due, in a large degree, the success of the expedition. Being one of the first in Spain to appreciate the plans of Columbus, he not only used his influence in his behalf to create favorable public opinion, but aided the enterprise with great liberality. Not only did he contribute a vessel from his own means, but he embarked with his brothers and friends on the expedition, thus hazarding both his property and his life in the enter-

prise. These circumstances, though receiving no consideration at the time, were subsequently generously regarded by Charles V., who, in recognition of the eminent services which Pinzon had rendered, granted his family the rank and privileges of nobility, and also conferred upon them a coat of arms emblematic of the great discovery.

The first formal act of Columbus was to send a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella announcing briefly his arrival at Palos and the success of his enterprise. While awaiting a reply thereto he was the centre of public interest and was assailed by a thousand inquiries concerning the new world from which he had just returned. For a greater part of the interval he was the guest of Father Perez, to whom fell the pleasant task of saying Mass and offering thanksgiving for the return of the expedition and the glorious work that had been accomplished. After this the sailors were for the most part discharged, many of whom had their homes in the town or neighborhood, and a few, as will be recalled, were under conviction for high crimes at the time of their departure. But such was the temper of the public mind in thankfulness for the great discoveries made that their punishment was not only remitted, but they were converted into men of historic renown. It was thus for a few days that Columbus passed the time in the Monastery of La Rabida, conversing with the Fathers of St. Francis and outlining his plans for the future. He also availed himself of the opportunity to send letters to his wife at Cordova, and to transmit a communication by messenger to Genoa, bearing the good news to the people of his native town, and asking his venerable father, and his brother Guiacomo, known in history



COLUMBUS RECEIVED BY THE DIGNITARIES.

as Don Diego, to come at once to see him in Spain. Nor did the discoverer and his friend, Father Perez, fail to forward a petition to the Pope, praying the issuance of a Papal ordinance establishing a line of demarcation north and south one hundred leagues to the west of the Azores, thus dividing the seas and land, and providing that west of this line all new discoveries and possessions should belong to Spain. This petition of the Admiral was used as the basis of the famous Papal Bull issued by Pope Alexander VI. on the 3d of May, 1493.

Having attended to these preliminaries, Columbus proceeded to Seville, where he received the first communication from their Majesties, containing a request for him to repair at once to Barcelona for a personal interview. As he had been in expectation of such a command he immediately set forth on his journey, which was destined to be the most memorable personal event ever witnessed in the Spanish peninsula. The route of the Admiral lay through the provinces of Valencia, Murcia and Castile, the fairest portions of Spain, and the journey developed into a triumphal procession commemorated in song and story for more than a century afterwards, and which may be heard in Spain to this day. The route all along was thronged with people, who gave themselves up to transports of jubilant demonstration. Crowds of shouting people followed after the procession, eager to get a glance at the greatest man of the age, and moved with equal curiosity to behold the strange beings and wonderful things which he had brought with him from the Indies.

A WONDERFUL PROCESSION.

Meanwhile, the Spanish sovereigns made extraordinary preparations to receive the man who had brought such great honor to their name. A solemn and beautiful scene was prepared in the great throne-room where the sovereigns held their court, and where the elite of the nobility were gathered to welcome the great Admiral in the presence of their Majesties. As Columbus approached Barcelona on the morning of April 15th, many gaily-dressed cavaliers rode forth to meet him, and to act as a guard of honor in conducting him into the city. A marvellous sight was presented as the cavalcade passed through the gates of the city. The streets were not only crowded with people, but the housetops were covered with humanity, rending the air with shouts of admiration and welcome. Columbus, too, had carefully prepared his little procession so that the effect might be as striking as possible. Six of the ten natives whom he had brought with him from the Indies (one dying on the return voyage and three being left sick in Palos), gorgeously painted and adorned in their own fashion, were placed in the front. After them were borne parrots and other creatures, living or dead, which the Admiral had collected as examples of the animal life of the New World. Following these were carried a collection of natural productions, including cotton, tobacco and medicinal plants, and next to these were exposed to view, on litters, ornaments made from gold, and specimens of precious stones which had been obtained from the natives. At the rear rode Columbus, accompanied by a brilliant throng of hidalgos and grandees of Spain.

No prouder moment in the life of any man has been recorded than that in which the great Admiral of the ocean seas was ushered before Spain's sovereigns. While eminently practical in many positions requiring genius to direct, Columbus was acutely susceptible to the blandishments and praises of men, the spectacular appealing especially to his nature. Those who have best studied his character have therefore many times pointed out the qualities of a knight and crusader, which were particularly prominent in his composition. The apparent elation of spirit which this scene inspired in him was conspicuous in his bearing, though he never subordinated his dignity to the pomp of egotism. He was excusable, too,



GREAT COLUMBIAN PROCESSION THROUGH BARCELONA.

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in contrasting the harsh buffetings, disappointments and mortifications which he had suffered for nearly a quarter of a century, with the triumph which he had achieved, and the national homage thus paid to his persistence and genius.

THE SPLENDORS OF THE ROYAL COURT PROVIDED FOR THE ADMIRAL'S RECEPTION.

Upon being ushered into the royal presence Columbus beheld Ferdinand and Isabella seated upon their thrones under a splendid canopy of gold brocade, while beside them sat Prince Juan, heir apparent to the Spanish crown. Upon either hand were arranged many nobles and officers of the government, including grandees of Castile, Aragon, Valencia and Catalonia, and counsellors of state, ministers, and other dignitaries, while as many richly dressed ladies attended upon the Queen. Columbus, whose appearance had now grown venerable through the markings of care in his countenance and hair, walked forward to salute their Majesties, his face lighted up with a smile of intense gratification. About to kneel in their presence and kiss their hands according to the courtly manners of the age, the King and Queen hesitated to accept the obeisance of a man who had reflected such distinguished honors not only upon himself, but upon the Spanish Crown as well. They accordingly themselves arose from their seats and raising him from his bended posture invested him with the insignia of a grandee, and commanded him to sit in a richly decorated arm-chair immediately in front of them, a thing unknown at royal receptions, except in case of princes and nobles of the highest rank. Thus seated Columbus was to recite to the royal ears the interesting story of his voyage and wonderful discoveries. Presenting the trophies and exhibits of his expedition, Columbus next introduced the natives, whom he brought from the strange country of the Indies, and in presenting them before the interested King and Queen described their manners, virtues and mode of life ; likewise the birds and animals were exhibited, as also the fruits and foreign plants, and their value to man explained. In a like manner the gold ore, in its native state, and in ornaments, was then produced to delight the avaricious eyes of the sovereigns and their court. Under the influence of his sanguine temperament Columbus could not forbear to point out, as if by prophecy, a greater promise of future explorations and discoveries. The things displayed as the fruits of his first voyage were mere hints of more abundant things to come.

The effect produced by this recitation and exhibition was well marked. At times the King and Queen exhibited great emotion, and at the close of the interview, moved upon by religious impulse, they sank upon their knees, offering up thanksgiving for the great things which had been accomplished in their reign. After the sovereigns had thus poured forth their thanks and praises, the great choir of the Royal Chapel took up the anthem of the *Te Deum* and rendered it with all the unction and solemnity of the hour.

DREAMS OF YET GREATER TRIUMPHS.

At the close of the first interview with Ferdinand and Isabella, Columbus was conducted to the place assigned for his residence and entertainment. But the interest attaching to his person and his deeds did not quickly subside. The people of Barcelona and the surrounding region continued to watch for his appearing, and to follow his train wherever he went. Meanwhile his mind was occupied with the revision of old plans and with new dreams which came with his triumph. The possibility of doing some great thing for the extension and uplifting of the Catholic cause in the far east recurred, as it had often done before, in this hour of his exaltation. One of the motives which he had formerly presented to the King and Queen for patronizing his voyage of discovery was the religious use to which the vast wealth of the Indies might be diverted by the sovereigns in case they should be able to replen-



RECEPTION OF COLUMBUS BY FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

ish their coffers from the Orient. The particular thing now contemplated was the old project of recovering the Holy Land and the tomb of Christ from the infidels.

At the present juncture, Columbus did not hesitate to offer his services and the expected wealth of the New World in the sacred cause of expelling Islamism from Palestine. He engaged within the space of seven years to furnish, from his part of the profits of the Indies, the means with which to raise an army of fifty thousand infantry and four thousand horse for a new crusade. Nor did he doubt that in another five years a second army of like proportions could be raised and equipped from the same resources. To do this thing he recorded a vow. Nor can there be any doubt of his confidence and sincerity. His dream contemplated the deliverance of Western Asia and Eastern Europe from the Turks and Arabs, and the setting up of the Cross in place of the fallen Crescent.

In a short time the intelligence of the discovery of another world was disseminated not only throughout Spain, but over all Western Europe. Everywhere the tidings were received with astonishment, as though the revelation had come from another planet. Perhaps at no other epoch, and with no other event in the history of the human race, had so sudden and great a transformation been accomplished in the thoughts and speculations of men. The misty conjectures of a thousand years respecting the mysteries of the ocean and the figure of the earth were suddenly swept away. Vague mythologies, geographical fictions, artificial constructions, and possibilities of an impossible geography, dim and exaggerated stories of the unknown deep and islands of the West, were brushed with one stroke of a magic hand into that limbo of oblivion where had accumulated, was accumulating, and still accumulates, the vagaries, the myths and the superstitions of the human mind. Henceforth no rational being, informed to any considerable degree in the elements of existing knowledge, could doubt the sphericity of the earth and the practicability of sailing around it. It is from this point of contemplation that the work of Columbus assumes its just importance in the history of mankind.

A GLANCE AT CONDITIONS THAT SURROUNDED HIM.

In the Columbian age, intelligence of the things done by men still ran with difficulty along the impeded channels of intercourse. The flying post was yet no swifter of wing than the foot of man or fleetness of the galloping steed. None had yet conceived of the possibility of subordinating the elements of nature to the purposes of despatch. The flying car, the ocean steamer, the electric flash; how far away were all of these from the imaginations of that era which saw the revelation of the New World!

Nevertheless the news went abroad. It was borne by sea to Italy and was heard with wonder in those old seacoast towns of the Rivas, out of which the man Columbus had arisen to revolutionize the opinions of mankind with respect to the possibilities of the habitable globe. It was carried through the notches of the Pyrenees, and was heard at Lyons, at Aix, and Paris. It was disseminated to Northwestern Europe, and Giovanni Kabotó, of Venice, heard the story in the streets of London, marvelling much at the thing done, but believing it more than possible. It spread through Central and Eastern Europe, till the sound thereof was heard in the city of the Eastern Cæsars—just forty years before conquered by Mohammed II. and his Turks—was rumored in Antioch, in Cairo, in Damascus, and fashioned into vague story by the barbaric Kurds guarding their flocks from the prowling jackals among the ruins of Khorsabad and Nimrud.

Such, however, were the uncertainties of knowledge in the Columbian age that none might discern the true nature and limitations of the great event. The data which Columbus had brought back with him from the hitherto unknown West were misinterpreted and mis-



applied by the discoverer himself, as well as by all the wise men of the generation. The Admiral was fixed in his belief that he had reached the East Indies and the shores of Asia. His confidence that Cuba was the easternmost cape of the Asiatic continent was unshaken, and his beliefs in these particulars were accepted by all. The errors thus arising—many and peculiar as they were—were mixed and mingled with all that was thought and said and done. The theory of the situation thus bound together the western shores of Europe and the eastern borders of Asia by an easy and practicable voyage of less than three thousand miles of unobstructed waters. The resources of the Orient seemed to be thus suddenly displayed as if some beneficent destiny stood ready, with a tremendous cornucopia, to pour out the treasures



A GLORIOUS DREAM—THE WAY IN WHICH LIE THE WRECKS OF THE WORLD'S INGRATITUDE.

of the most ancient and opulent nations of the globe into the lap of waiting Europe. These speculations might well divert us from the mere narrative of events to consider the question of the age from the standpoint of philosophical inquiry. But we must return to the Admiral and his work, leaving the reader to formulate for himself not only the splendid vision of the scene, but the true nature and dependencies by which the great event was held in its historical connections. Columbus was in the heyday of a great renown. Perhaps no man of history was ever in a situation to enjoy more fully the honors and rewards of successful and glorious enterprise. The discoverer drank it all in with many a full draught, but without satiety. To him, if much had been accomplished, still more

remained behind. The mind of the Admiral was of that rare and noble fashion which can only live in the heat and light of ideality and imagination. Already, before his departure from Barcelona, greater visions than ever before had risen upon him, and though he was dazzled with the realization of his dreams, he nevertheless, with his habitual sagacity, made his arrangements for the future.

**A GLORY THAT DIMMED THE LUSTRE EVEN
OF ROYALTY.**

It has not happened to men of other than royal blood to become in a half-feudal age the familiar companions of kings and princes. This fate, the happiness of which the reflective mind may well be disposed to doubt, was given in full measure to Columbus. His sovereigns treated him almost as an equal. King Ferdinand rode abroad with him, and as if to couple the honor with the honors of the future, the young Prince Juan was mounted on the other side of the sovereign. Now it was that that famous Columbian coat



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

of arms was devised, granted and confirmed to the Admiral as a perpetual memorial to him and his descendants. It was fashioned like the royal banner of Castile. In the lower left-hand corner were the outlines of a sea dotted with islands and shores, significant of the immortal discovery which Columbus had made. On the right-hand quarter, below, were the five memorable anchors; above was that rampant lion which has been so much prefigured in the heraldry of nations. Last of all, and at the left hand above, was the castle, or citadel of strength, surmounted by the three towers, significant of the united kingdoms, Castile, Leon, Aragon. To this was appended that Spanish motto of great fame which mankind will not willingly let die: •

A Castilla y a Leon,
Nuevo mundo dio Colon.
Castile and Leon. Colon sets
A New World in their coronets.

To all these honors, other distinctions and emoluments were gladly added by the crown. It was at this time that the question of the actual first sight of the new lands in the West was adjudged and decided. The issue, of course, lay between Columbus himself and that Juan Rodriguez Bermejo, of the *Pinta*, according to the statement of De Lorgues, and of Rodrigo de Triana, 'as-stated by Irving and other authorities, whose cry of land on the morning of the 12th of October we have mentioned as the certain signal of the discovery. But the reader will remember that the Admiral had already, several hours previously, seen a light. Two things were involved in the decision: first, the honor of the first glimpse of the New World; and, secondly (not to be despised), the pension which the sovereigns had promised to the discoverer.

The question was not easily decided. Doubtless, if the conditions had been reversed, that is, if Bermejo had seen the light and Columbus had seen the land, the decision would have been more easy. As it was, the royal court adjudged the honor to him to whom it was only possibly, though improbably, due, but was certainly less needy, and doubtless deserved it less than the humble mariner of the *Pinta*. As for Bermejo, the decision was accepted with infinite chagrin. He had staked everything upon his claim, and the judgment against him was fatal to the one great hope of his life. He immediately renounced his country forever, cast aside the Christian religion as a delusion of fraud and of sin, went to Africa, became an Islamite, and died under the banner of the Prophet.

CONCEPTIONS OF GREAT THINGS TO BE ACCOMPLISHED IN THE NEW WORLD.

From the first day of his return to Europe—from the moment that the intelligence of the great discovery was carried to the ears of the sovereigns—it was evident to all that the work done by Columbus was merely the first movement of a vast enterprise. None were foolish enough to suppose that the new countries in the Far West had been fully revealed. The leading minds of Spain perceived at a glance that the thing done was only the first glimpse at a gold mine, the limits and extent of which none might know. The imaginations of men flew to the far islands of the New World, and began to construct there cities and temples and palaces.

Under such conditions, the project of new discoveries and explorations flashed in full light about the Spanish court. The sovereigns in their very first letter to the Admiral, who was then at Seville, made haste to tell him that he should, in that city, before setting out for Barcelona, take the initiative for a new expedition. Whatever things he might see necessary to be done, to that end he should do, even before his personal interview with their Majesties. Columbus himself was deeply concerned about the second voyage, and eagerly promoted the preparations therefor. The subject was interwoven like a thread in all the communications which he had with the King and Queen. It no longer required urging to convince the sovereigns of the importance of extending their empire in the West.

The outlines of the new expedition, which now had its relation to the West Indies and the methods of possessing them, were at once devised. The summer—season most favorable and indeed only favorable for the expedition—was already at hand, and it was necessary to expedite the preparations, or else put off the voyage to another year. The jealousy of Portugal, and the knowledge of what she might attempt, furnished a whip and spur to the crown. The sovereigns deemed it expedient to establish a sort of bureau for the conduct of Indian affairs, and the city of Seville was selected as the outfitting place of the enterprise.

PREPARATIONS FOR A SECOND EXPEDITION.

At the head of this branch of the administration was placed as superintendent and director-general, Don Juan de Fonseca, Archdeacon of Seville, a man of great abilities,

but little scrupulous in the matter of choosing his means and methods. The treasurer of the new department was Francisco Pinelo, and the comptroller, Juan de Soria. The idea was that the exclusive jurisdiction of all intercourse and commerce between the mother country and the Indies should belong to the bureau, and that everything not devised and directed thereby should be under the ban of illegality. One of the first steps was to establish at the port of Cadiz a custom house, to which all the prospective commerce of the Indies should be reported, and the scheme of administration extended to the creation of a like office in San Domingo, which was to be administered by the admiral himself, or his subordinate.

We may pause here a moment to note the favor in which Columbus was held by the nobility. The greatest men of the kingdom—and they were many—sought his acquaintance, and gave their countenance to his cause. Among those with whom Columbus now fell into intimate relations was Pedro Gonzales de Mendoza, the Spanish grand cardinal, of whom we have spoken in a former chapter. The latter invited the discoverer to his castle, and discussed with him at length the future policy of the church with respect to the new countries of the West, and in particular the best means of converting the natives.

It was during his stay at the castle of Mendoza that Columbus, being at a banquet given in his honor by the cardinal, gave the celebrated reply and demonstration to one of the company who was disposed to cavil at the originality of the recent work of discovery. This small courtier—not, we may say, without some reason, but with the worst of bad manners—began to inquire of the Admiral whether, if he had failed to reach the islands and mainland of the western seas, some other would not have been soon led under like motives to undertake and accomplish the enterprise. Hereupon Columbus took an egg, and passing it to the company, challenged any and all to make it stand on end. None could do it. None perceived the possibility of doing it. Having it returned to him, the Admiral brought it down with force endwise upon the table, broke and crushed the shell to a certain extent, and left it standing. The application and meaning of the act were sufficiently clear; you can make an egg stand on the end provided you know how to do it.

The six Indians who had been taken to Barcelona were regarded with profound interest by churchmen, who thought it wise to have them baptized and instructed in the doctrines of Christianity. This was accordingly done, and the conceit of the time pointed them out as the first evangelists and exemplars of the true faith in the Indies. So little apprehension did any man of that age have of the laws which govern human evolution that all supposed the aborigines of the West Indies able, by the touch of the church, to advance at once to the plane of an ancient faith having its origin and development among a Semitic people in the far East, and to enter at a single bound into the communion and relationship of civilized nations.

KING JOHN CHAFING UNDER LOST OPPORTUNITY.

Meanwhile, preparations were going forward rapidly and successfully for the new voyage. The theory of the situation was this: Columbus had discovered the Indies by the western route, and the discovery having been made under the banners and patronage of Spain, this fact gave to the Spanish crown a right to occupy, possess and govern the islands and continents which had been thus found. As to the peoples occupying those lands, the aboriginal nations, they had no rights of possession which Christian kings and princes must recognize and observe. The monarchs of Christendom had, since the Crusading epoch, an agreement, amounting to a clause in international law, that any Christian sovereign whose subject might discover unoccupied lands or regions inhabited by Pagans,

should have the right of discovery, preemption and preoccupation, as against all other princes whatsoever. Each monarch conceded to the others this right of discovery, and the rule was now plainly applicable to the case of the Spaniards in the West Indies. It was this principle that had secured to the recent Kings of Portugal the exclusive rights



* COLUMBUS REBUKES HIS CRITICS BY A SIMPLE ILLUSTRATION.

to their province of La Mina and the coast of Guinea ; and it was the same principle which now held back and thwarted the ambition of John II., chafing and fretting in his anxiety to clutch the islands lately visited by the Columbian fleet.

We have already spoken of the letter sent by Columbus on his arrival to His Holiness,

the Pope. The Spanish sovereigns readily took up the thought of Columbus relative to a dividing line through the Atlantic under the sanction of Papal authority. They accordingly made haste to open negotiations with Alexander VI. concerning the proposed arrangement. The Pope was himself a Spaniard, and the tie of birth had been recently strengthened by many events well calculated to draw the attention and affections of the Supreme Pontiff to his native land. In the very year just past the Spanish sovereigns, in a war which had many of the features of the Crusades, had first cooped up and then ultimately expelled the Islamite Moors from the peninsula. With scarcely less zeal, they had assailed, persecuted, suppressed and robbed the Jews. The whole of Spain had thus been redeemed and consolidated under the cross—a circumstance most grateful to the ambitions and pontifical pride of Alexander.

The Spanish monarchs, in opening the question at the court of Rome, were doubtful whether so great a claim as that which they now advanced would be acknowledged and ratified. Ferdinand deemed it prudent in his letter to the Pope to assume that the sanction of His Holiness, in confirmation of the rights of the Spanish crown to the new lands discovered in the west, was not essential to the validity of the claim; but the good, obedient and faithful Catholic Majesty thought it best—such was his allegation—as a true son of the Church to ask the Holy Father to ratify and confirm aright that which the princes of Christendom had already conceded the one to the other.

HOW THE POPE SETTLED A GRAVE QUESTION.

The Pope for his part was greatly elated with the intelligence. He perceived the expediency of granting the claim of their most Catholic Majesties. Accordingly, on the 3d of May, 1493, he issued that celebrated Bull, establishing the line of demarcation between the discoveries of Portugal and those of Spain. The line, as we have said before, was drawn north and south one hundred leagues to the west of the Azores. On the east of the line Portugal should have free course in the discovery, possession and occupation of all lands not previously visited or occupied by the subjects of a Christian king. To the west of the line Spain should have preemption. The New World, whatever it was, should be hers. Her work of discovery and occupation should go on unimpeded and her rights should be exclusive and absolute.

Thus were all the inhabited and habitable parts of the globe, except those regions which were already occupied by Christian states and kingdoms, divided by a Papal decree with an imaginary line drawn north and south through the Atlantic Ocean. The concession of the Supreme Pontiff was sufficiently ample, and sufficiently surprising, when followed to its probable results. Spain might discover and occupy all uninhabited and Pagan lands lying westward of the division. Suppose that the Spanish fleets should press their way westward around the earth, where would their rights be limited? Might they not go on around until by circumnavigation they should take the whole world? Or, in the case of Portugal, might she not press her discoveries eastward until she should come around to these very West Indies, claim them, and take them under the Papal sanction? The Pope had, in a word, granted everything to Spain, and everything to Portugal. But the Pacific Ocean, still unknown, as well as the American Continents, lay between to prevent a conflict of claims in the region of the antipodes; the Papal Bull was saved from absurdity by the bigness of the globe.

The new bureau for the government of the Indies was quickly organized. The establishment was destined to grow in course of time into that Royal India House, under the auspices of which the commercial and political affairs of Spain and her outlying pos-

sessions in the West were so long, so despotically, and so profitably directed. The authority of the office was absolute, both as to the persons concerned in the trade with the Indies and the trade itself. It was to this bureau, under the conduct of De Fonseca, that the business of fitting out the new squadron for Columbus was now entrusted.

The enterprise was pressed with the utmost vigor. A decree was issued, by which Fonseca and Columbus were authorized to purchase any ships that might be in port on the coast of Andalusia, or, in case of refusal, to impress them for the expedition. The same despotic rule was established in the matter of furnishing and equipping the vessels, and even in enlisting the crews. Mariners might be conscripted under pay for the proposed service, and the civil officers of the province were commanded to lend their aid in carrying out the provisions of the act.

A RUSH OF VOLUNTEERS.

As might be supposed, however, the work of obtaining ships and supplies and men was now no longer difficult. Many captains were ready to offer their vessels for such a voyage. The supplies might be readily procured from stores that had been sealed against all petitions when the first contemplated voyage was to be undertaken. As for the crews, the spirit of

adventure had now come to supply a motive of embarkation on an expedition to the wonderful Indies across the Atlantic. Some difficulty arose over the appropriation of money for the second voyage. The work

was under the patronage of the King and Queen. As for the treasury of the new bureau of the India House, that was empty. But the sovereigns set aside a part of the ecclesiastical revenue, and this was placed to



COLUMBUS RECEIVING THE THANKS OF HIS SOVEREIGNS.

the credit of the Indian Secretary, Pinelo. In the previous year, during the persecution and expulsion of the Jews, vast amounts of property, especially in jewels and plate, had been confiscated by royal edict, and this also went into the new treasury. Finally the secretary was authorized to negotiate a loan, if such should be needed, for the expeditious fitting out of the squadron.

Columbus, in these days of honor and influence, took care to fortify his own interests and those of his descendants by obtaining an additional patent and confirmation of his rights from the King and Queen. The paper in question was the third of those remarkable documents upon which the first political relations between Europe and America were established. In the present case, Columbus deemed it prudent that the new patent of authority should recite the existing agreement between himself and their Majesties made in the preceding year. The second charter was drawn accordingly, at the city of Barcelona, under date of the 28th of May, 1493. After enumerating all the existing covenants between the sovereigns and Don Christopher Columbus, and stating in the introductory part the nature of the petition which Columbus had submitted, the document proceeded to confer upon him certain specific rights, among which was a confirmation of all the benefits previously granted, and which were to descend in perpetuity to his heirs; besides which were delegated extraordinary

powers, not only as governor of all the new possessions, but such judicial authority as made him the supreme arbiter of all disputes arising therein. In short, he was practically made King of the new world, with all the royal prerogatives thereto attaching.

THE FLEET CHOSEN TO SAIL FROM CADIZ.

The new squadron, prepared and supplied under the direction of De Fonseca, was in its extent and character strongly contrasted with the little fleet which had made the first voyage to the Indies. The armament consisted of three vessels of the largest build, nine ships of medium burden and five caravels. The cargo was of the most miscellaneous description. Several breeds of domestic animals, which had not been found in the Indies, were taken on board, including horses and swine. A large variety of plants and collections of seeds and implements of husbandry were provided, with a view to the agricultural development of the new lands. The place selected for the equipment of the fleet



CITY OF SEVILLE AND GUADALQUIVIR RIVER.

was Cadiz, though the management was located at Seville. Meanwhile Columbus, satisfied with his fame and honor, bade farewell to the King and Queen, left Barcelona on the 28th day of May, and made his way to the coast. On the day of his departure the Spanish Court attended the Admiral from the palace to his own residence, and there he took final leave of their Majesties. It was the high noon of his destiny.

Before fixing our attention upon the squadron which was fitted and provisioned at Cadiz during the summer months, it may be well to glance for a moment at the serious questions which were now pending between Spain and Portugal. It will be remembered that after the arrival of Columbus at Lisbon, and his interview with King John, the latter had been advised by his council to anticipate the Spanish government in the occupation and possession of the new lands discovered in the West. This advice was adopted by the King, and

orders were secretly given for the equipment of a fleet to sail into the western waters and seize upon the islands and mainland found by Columbus. In order to cover the movement, it was given out that the expedition was intended for the African coast, where the Portuguese had already fixed themselves by discovery and possession.

The King of Portugal now sent to Barcelona one of his diplomatists, Ruy de Sande, to allay any suspicion that might be entertained by the Spanish Court respecting the movements and purposes of Portugal. The ambassador was instructed to speak to King Ferdinand about certain aggressions of the Spanish fishermen beyond Cape Bojador, and to ask that an interdict be issued on that question. The sovereigns of Spain were congratulated on the success of the Columbian voyage and thanked that the Admiral had, in the prosecution of his enterprise, kept clear of the Portuguese possessions and fields of discovery. There had been an understanding between the two courts that the Spaniards in their maritime adventures should steer to the west of the Canaries, leaving the seas on the south as the preserve of Portugal. De Sande was instructed to gain from the Spanish King a reaffirmation of this arrangement, and to hint that any difference of opinion between the two powers should be settled by negotiation.

A BATTLE OF INTRIGUE AND DUPLICITY.

There has not been a time in modern history when the jealousy and distrust of two monarchs were more deeply inflamed than in the case of Ferdinand and King John. Both sovereigns were endowed by nature with a suspicious and wary disposition. In abilities the two were not dissimilar, and their ambitions were of a like trend and limitation. Their principles of action were such as might be expected in an age when the Inquisition was adopted as a means of reform by the church, and when the rules of international law were deduced from the writings of Machiavelli. In their purpose to succeed by craft and duplicity the one king was even as the other; but in subtlety and fox-like shrewdness, the Spanish ruler was the superior of his adversary. It appears, however, that King John, better than his rival, had learned the potent and diabolical influence of money in accomplishing political results. He had adopted the plan of bribing certain spies at the Spanish Court, who being attached in several capacities to the government of Ferdinand were able to keep their employer constantly informed, not only of the things done, but also of the things purposed. In the battle of wit and craft, which now ensued during the early part of 1493, the advantages of intrigue remained with Ferdinand, while the benefits of systematic bribery accrued to King John.

It is not needed that we should here relate the details of the diplomatic contest between the two courts. At one time Ferdinand sent his ambassador, Lope de Herrera, to Lisbon, with two sets of instructions, and documents of exactly opposite intent. But of this manœuvre the Portuguese King had already been informed by his spies, and the scheme of the Spanish King was checkmated. At a later date, and in order to gain time, Ferdinand sent two plenipotentiaries to his "beloved cousin" to open a discussion about the Western seas and the

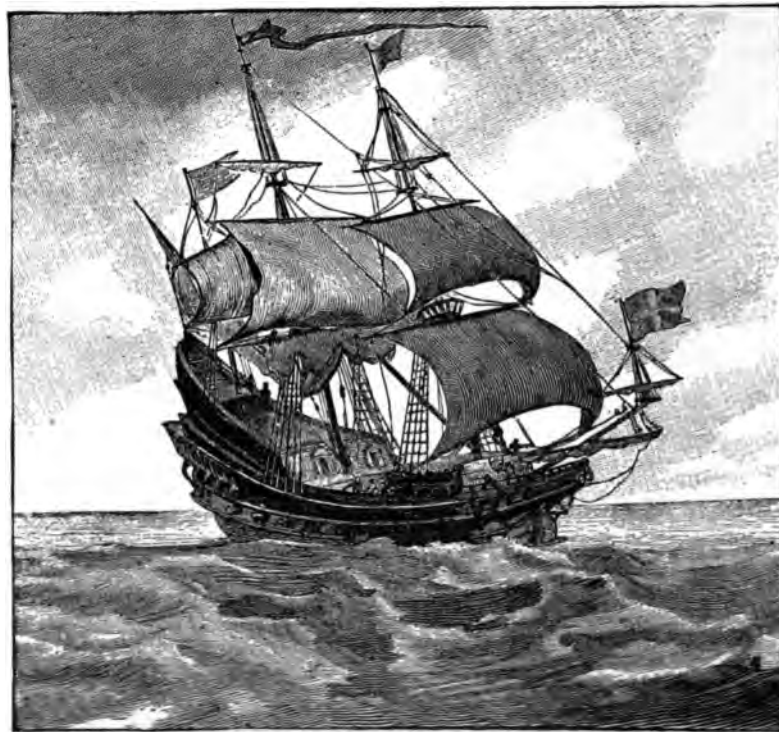


ARMOR OF COLUMBUS.

new lands found therein, that might last until the second Columbian squadron could set sail. But the purpose of the Spanish monarch had again been anticipated by the wary John, and nothing was gained by the manœuvre.

In the respective relations of the two governments with the court of Rome, however, the case was different. At that tribunal the advantage was wholly on the side of Spain. The negotiations of Ferdinand with Pope Alexander had already led to an understanding, which presently became a status that nothing could disturb. The Papal Bull dividing the Atlantic held against all intrigue and contrivance of the Portuguese King, and in the existing condition of affairs he durst not send his squadron to the West Indies.

At one time, during the summer, it was reported at Barcelona that a Portuguese vessel had been despatched from the Azores on a west-bound voyage. A protest was immediately forwarded by Ferdinand to Lisbon, and at the same time De Fonseca was ordered to send two Spanish caravels in pursuit. After a brief interval, communication was received from the Portuguese Court to the effect that no such expedition as that reported had been undertaken; nor did Spanish investigation ever bring such an adventure to light. The story was doubtless a fiction. The King of Portugal was balked in every effort which he made to recover his lost prestige. For him and his kingdom the golden opportunity was gone, and he must henceforth unwillingly assent to the adverse destiny which had decreed the discovery and possession of the New World to the crown of Spain.



CHAPTER IX.

EQUIPMENT OF THE SECOND EXPEDITION.



A BLAZE of glory shot up like a rocket and spread its dazzling shower over all Spain. The spirit of war, which had produced so many valorous knights in the Moorish contention, now gave place, by a sudden change of aspiration, to an ambition that set its sign in the New World, where brighter opportunity for exploitation was offered in discovery, adventure and conquest.

The work of fitting the second squadron for Columbus was accordingly completed with *éclat*. We have already referred to the character of the fleet, the crew and the cargo. Under the first plan it was intended to limit the number of sailors and passengers to one thousand ; but so great was the enthusiasm that, by solicitation of volunteers and the urgency of friends, the number was extended to twelve hundred. Even this limit was surpassed under pressure, and by means of various excuses, intrigues and favoritism, three hundred additional adventurers managed to get on board.

In so far as Columbus himself determined the character of the expedition, the passengers were selected with respect to the purposes of the voyage. To this end he secured a considerable company of artisans, representatives of the various handicrafts, whose work, as he foresaw, would be greatly in demand in the Indian Colonies. As to the merchandise of the cargo the same was selected according to the experiences gained during the former voyage. It was clear that the natives of the islands thus far visited were all beguiled with showy trinkets and decorations, such as aborigines always prefer to articles of more solid value. The supply of this variety of commercial trifles was accordingly made proportional to the expected demand. Indeed the whole cargo was chosen with as much regard as possible to the desires and necessities of those people whom the Spaniards had visited in the preceding year.

The reader must not conclude, however, that by this time the forces at work in the Spanish nation had become too strong and vehement to be controlled, or even successfully directed, by the genius of one man. This indeed is the philosophical reason why Columbus rose at this juncture to the acme of his career. Up to this point he himself had been the directive agency in all that had been planned and accomplished. Thus far the work bore the distinct impress of his individual genius. But the historical forces of the age now began to seize him and bear him away. Hitherto he had contended only with the elements of the natural world and the conservative obduracy of man ; but now a human whirlwind had been started which was ere long to become a tornado so violent that the will of one was only a feather in the storm. This substitution of a general for an individual purpose, began to express

itself in the selection of the crews and colonists of the second expedition. The spirit of adventure now rushed in to supply the material of the enterprise, and henceforth passion, caprice and lust were to a considerable extent the prevailing motives of the movement.

ADVENTURERS OF EVERY KIND JOIN THE EXPEDITION.

We must remember, in this connection, the existing condition of Spanish society. The recent years had been consumed in war and conquest. The final struggle with the Moors had brought into the field the chivalrous and adventurous class of young Spaniards who joined the various campaigns in the spirit of knights and cavaliers. The motives of the contest were mercenary and fanatical. The great province of Granada, with its accumulations of Moorish wealth and art, was the principal prize. As usual in such cases of spoliation and robbery the spirit of propagandism and religious zeal was set forth as the reason for the conquest. In the case of the suppression and ruin of the Jews the same argument was advanced by the zealots of Church and State. In such a school it must needs be that the graduates would come forth in the character of adventurers, bigots and robbers.

The sudden subsidence of the Moorish war thus let loose in Spanish society a large element of restless, mercenary and half lawless chivalry, whose motives of action flew low and settled over the quagmires of gold, and glory, and license. The appearance of a new enterprise, a new and startling event like that of the discovery of the Indies, must in the nature of the case furnish an occasion and vent for the activities and passions of such characters as those just described. There was a strong tending of all such towards the port of Cadiz, and it was almost impossible to prevent the capture of the new squadron by this element. Hither came the gold hunter, the soldier out of work, the drifting, lawless young nobility, to find opportunity and excitement by volunteering in an expedition to an unknown world.

There was, moreover, a certain weakness in the character of Columbus which made him accessible to the influence of mere adventurers and rakes. They crowded around him and solicited the privilege of going abroad under his banner. They seemed to constitute a part of that world in the estimation of which he now held so conspicuous a place. Their voice and applause seemed to be but an echo of the public homage. To hold them at bay and put them back was therefore difficult, and the result was that a considerable part of the crew was made up of a class of men who might, with much more profit, have been sent on a military campaign to Damascus or Bagdad, rather than despatched as the first colonists and citizens of Europe to the new hemisphere.

THE JEALOUSY OF FONSECA REBUKED BY ISABELLA.

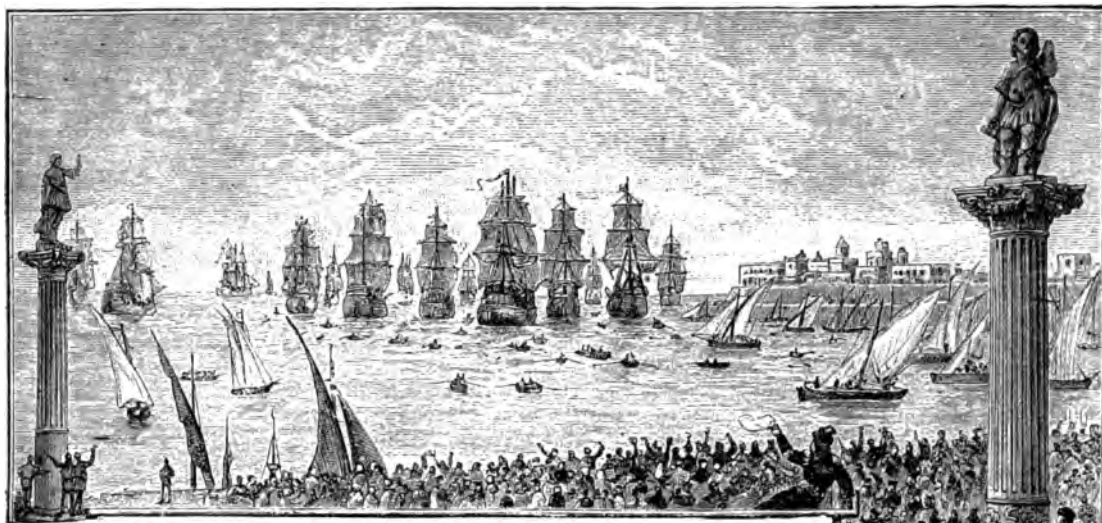
It was at this juncture of affairs that the premonitions of a break between the Admiral and Fonseca were first discovered. The latter was a shrewd man of affairs, ambitious, cold, calculating, unscrupulous in matters affecting his designs. His talents might not be doubted any more than his jealous and vindictive disposition. He was one of those characters whose private manners and individualities were carried into his office, where they constituted the mainspring of his public life and policy. He was secretive in his methods, little disposed to trust his associates, and not infrequently perfidious in his dealings with them. When he perceived that the popularity of the cause was inducing a larger enlistment than had been contemplated, he procured an interview with the Queen, at which he interposed his objections and began to speak of the additional expense and risk thereby incurred. Attempting to introduce obstructive tactics, he referred the matter a second time to the sovereigns, but they sent back a mandatory order to Fonseca to concede everything to the wishes of the Admiral, to follow his directions and second his plans in all particulars.



FONSECA BEFORE THE QUEEN AS A PROTESTANT AGAINST THE SCHEMES OF COLUMBUS.
(167)

It was under these auspices that the fleet of seventeen vessels was made ready in the harbor of Cadiz. The supplies requisite for the voyage were drawn for the most part from military stores which had been left over from the Moorish war. The summer months were consumed with the preparation, and it was not until late in September that the armament was complete. Pains had been taken to furnish the ships with capable and zealous officers. Some of the best pilots in the kingdom, noted at that epoch for the superior skill of its mariners, were put at the helm. Columbus himself was captain-general of the squadron, and his commission was so full and absolute as to leave no question respecting his authority, whether on the voyage or at the destination.

Many noted and some highly picturesque characters were members of the expedition. Pope Alexander had taken full cognizance of all that was done and planned respecting



DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS ON HIS SECOND EXPEDITION.

the enterprise. He deemed it well that an emissary from the Papal court should be on board as the representative of the interests and supremacy of the Church. For this office a certain Benedictine monk, named Bernardo Buyl, was chosen as apostolic vicar for the Indies, and to him the other prelates and ecclesiastical officers, eleven in number, were commanded to be obedient. The vicar was himself a man of large affairs. He had been ambassador to the court of France and was fully conversant with the international relations of Europe. On coming to Spain he demanded and received from the Court a supply of Church materials and paraphernalia, such as he deemed necessary for the establishment and maintenance of the faith in the New World. The other ecclesiastics, of higher or lower rank, went as his companions and coadjutors in the project of establishing Catholicism among the people of the Indian islands.

After the Benedictine monk the most famous person that accompanied Columbus was his best friend, the devoted friar, Juan Perez, to whose influence was so largely due the equipment of the first expedition, and to whom Columbus and their Majesties were alike indebted. The good father sailed on the *Maria Galante* (Gracious Mary), and was thus in the

company of many other distinguished persons, among whom may be remarked Gil Garcia, alcaid-major; Bernal Diaz de Pisa, lieutenant of the controllers-general; Sebastian de Olano, receiver of the crown taxes; the astronomer, Father Juan Perez de Marchena; the physician-in-chief, Doctor Chanca; some hidalgos; Melchor Maldonado, a cousin to the cosmographer of that name; and two baptized Indian interpreters, one of whom had as godfather the brother of the Admiral, and was called after his name, Diego Colon. There also was seen, as a simple passenger, the estimable Francisco de Casaús, better known under the name of Las Casas. His son, Barthelmy, whom his ardent love for the Indians ought one day to immortalize, was then pursuing his first studies at Seville.

There was also with the expedition the famous young chevalier, Don Alonzo de Ojeda, destined to enact so important a part in the primitive annals of the West Indies. Of him the student of American history may form an adequate idea from his likeness in character, life and adventure, to Captain John Smith, of Virginia. The parallel is in every particular marked and striking, with the exception of the diversity of the two characters in moral honesty. Ojeda had the same element of daring and romance, of rash courage, of needless hazard and skill of extrication, which have made the name of Captain Smith so notable in our colonial history. In the case of Ojeda, his faulty education, and the prevailing immorality of the day, had contributed to mar his conscience and to make him unscrupulous in obligation and duty. But for the rest he was the prototype of Smith.

Ojeda was a cousin to that other Alonzo de Ojeda who was the inquisitor-general of Spain. He was a soldier and adventurer from boyhood. He had fought with the Infidels in the Moorish war, and had acquired the reputation of unexampled reckless daring and audacity. In person he was below the medium height, lithe, sinewy, agile as a lynx, with lustrous black eyes, complexioned like an Arab, the best rider in the army, generous with everything, never happy except in action, most pleased in a fight, with a temper—like flint and steel—blazing and then cold, a born leader, loving hazard for the sake of it, and never safe except in danger. Happy had it been for Columbus if this audacious and restless spirit had been left in Spain.

GREAT DEMONSTRATIONS MADE AT THE FLEET'S DEPARTURE.

The departure of the squadron was set for Wednesday, the 29th of September, 1493. The embarkation was made on the preceding day. Now it was that the greater number of that additional three hundred passengers of whom we have spoken managed to get on board. Some of them did so with the consent of the Admiral. Others were smuggled into the ships by the privity of friends. Quite a number managed their own cause of adventure, and were presently found as stowaways when the ships stood out to sea. The fleet weighed anchor in the early morning. The sun had not yet risen to witness the spectacle; but the whole Spanish coast, from the mouth of the Guadalquivir to the bay of Trafalgar, was on the alert for the great event.

No stronger contrast could be well afforded than that between the departure of this second squadron and the going forth of the first. Every circumstance of the two occasions seemed to have been altered by some good genius from darkness to light. Glory had come to take the place of despondency; universal applause took the place of universal cavilling and grief; power was substituted for weakness, and eagerness and zeal for gloom and mutiny. The three little ships constituting the Admiral's fleet had become an armada. The meagre equipment and doubtful issue had been replaced with abundant stores, and the confident outlook of certainty. Instead of the wailing and dolor of the panic-stricken people of Palos, the multitudes of Cadiz and the surrounding country gathered with glad applause to the shore to cheer and shout farewells to the fortunate adventurers.

With the break of day the harbor was literally covered with all manner of craft swarming around the ships, till the water was darkened with boat-loads of living beings. They whose friends were going on the great expedition counted themselves happy to be thus linked with its destinies. The Admiral himself was the focus of all compliments and plaudits. He took his station on the flagship, the *Maria Galante*, and before sunrise gave the order to weigh anchor. A favoring wind had sprung up from the shore as if nature herself was eager to join her impulses with the endeavors and hopes of the human race. As the sails filled and the vessels began to move, the hundreds of boats that had darkened the harbor fell back to the shore. The Admiral's two sons, who had come to share the hour



IN THE BAY OF CADIZ.

of their father's triumphant departure, went down last of all from his ship, waved their boyish farewells from the water, and were rowed to land. All the shores round about, from the point of St. Sebastian to the little island of La Caraccan, were black with people. The water of the bay was as blue and placid as the sky ; both earth and heaven seemed to drop a benediction on the departing fleet.

The squadron proceeded under fair winds over the same course which Columbus had taken on his first voyage, reaching Gomera, one of the islands of the Canaries, where he took on some necessary supplies of wood and water, and also added to the cargo a herd of sheep and goats, besides a variety of domestic fowls for the new colony which he expected to plant in Hispaniola.

OUT ON THE WIDE, WIDE SEA.

On the 7th the fleet weighed anchor and continued the voyage, with the *Maria Galante*, Columbus' flag ship, in advance ; but though they had departed under a fair wind,

before they had gone two leagues they fell into a calm which detained them a period of six days. During all this time they continued in sight of the harbor whence they had last departed ; but catching at last a favoring wind, the fleet continued in a southwestward direction until reaching a point which Columbus reckoned to be due east from the island of Hayti, he set his prows directly towards the west, caught the trade winds, and by avoiding the Sargasso Sea, which had before caused such great detention, he made a quick voyage across the Atlantic.

On the 2d of November signs were perceived indicative of the near approach of land. The breezes became capricious, the sea changed color, and the waves, losing their regular swell, began to assume the choppy appearance of a bay. With the coming dawn of Sunday, November 3d, anticipations were verified by the sight of bold outlines of an island lying directly to the west, to which, in honor of the day, Columbus gave the name of Dominica. Before the ships anchored, however, three other islands were discovered, and it was perceived that the ships were in the midst of an archipelago 600 miles southeast of San Salvador. The joy which was infused into the hearts of all who had accompanied the expedition was so great at the auspicious termination of the voyage that they united in an anthem, solemnly chanted, as an expression of their gratitude to Heaven.

Coasting about the shore of Dominica without finding any safe anchorage or discovering signs of natives, the fleet bore away to the north a short distance until presently another island was seen whose striking features betrayed its volcanic origin. Upon this shore a landing was effected, and several of the members of the expedition made a short journey into the interior, where they discovered a mountain peak hollowed in the centre, which had become the basin of a large lake fed by living springs, and which, overflowing, formed a cataract pouring down in foaming spray over a lofty precipice. In honor of the monastery in Estremadura, Columbus gave to the island the name of Guadalupe.

A VISIT TO THE CARIBBEE ISLANDERS.

A farther advance towards the interior by several of the bolder spirits of the expedition revealed an inland town, but from which the inhabitants had, on the approach of their visitors, hurriedly fled to the forest. In their precipitate flight several of the natives left their children behind, which the Spaniards captured and hung about their necks many gewgaws, hoping thereby to attract the parents, but this attempt to open an intercourse with the islanders failed, for not one appeared to ascertain what fate had befallen the captured children. The only difference noted between these natives and those with whom Columbus had formerly come in contact was in the character of the village. The houses which the Spaniards now found were square instead of circular, and some of the better kind were supplied with porticos. The most singular thing discovered at this village was a sort of pan for frying and boiling, and which the Spaniards claimed was of iron. The curiosity of this piece of native workmanship was found in the fact that no specimen of this metal, whether wrought or native, had been seen in the western islands, and the Spaniards could only account for this utensil upon the assumption that it had been wrought, by some art of the Indians, from meteoric stone. But there was also discovered a section of the mast of a ship in one of the village houses, which, if it had been driven by the trade winds from the coast of Europe, would supply another means for accounting for the iron pan, since if a mast could drift so great a distance, other portions of a wreck might do likewise, bearing articles of European manufacture of which the natives would possess themselves.

BUTCHER-SHOPS WHERE HUMAN FLESH WAS SOLD.

There was yet another circumstance still better calculated to fix the attention and at the same time excite the repugnance of the Spaniards. It was in this village of Guadaloupe that they first discovered the ravages and wrecks of cannibalism. Human bones were plentifully scattered about the houses. In the kitchens were found skulls in use



CANNIBAL CABIN IN GAUDALOUPE.

as bowls and vases. In some of the houses the evidences of man-eating were still more vividly and horribly present. The Spaniards entered apartments which were veritable human butcher-shops. Heads and limbs of men and women were hung up on the walls or suspended from the rafters, in some instances dripping with blood, and, as if to add, if that were possible, to the horror of the scene, dead parrots, geese, dogs and iguanas were hung up without discrimination or preference with the fragments

of human bodies. In a pot some pieces of a human limb were boiling, so that with these several evidences it was manifest that cannibalism was not an incidental fact, but a common usage, well established and approved in the life of the islanders. Subsequent investigation showed that Guadaloupe was the centre and stronghold of the Carib race, and of the cannibal practice. The contrast afforded in the persons and characters and manners of these savages with the mild-natured natives of the Bahamas was

sufficiently striking. The Caribbeans were large, strong, full of action, courageous, and especially vindictive. The man-eating usage had its laws and limitations among them. They did not, as did some of the South Pacific islanders, eat their own people. The anthropophagous habit had a strict relation to war. The Caribs ate their prisoners—men, women and children, especially the men.

It was from this habit that the warlike nature of these aboriginal desperadoes took its impulse and vehemence. War was made by them, systematically, for the purpose of securing droves of prisoners with which to satisfy the cravings of a horrible appetite. The usage was as well founded and as customary as was that of the North American Indians in the buffalo hunt or the bear hunt. With the Caribs it was a **man hunt**. The men were all warriors and were generally abroad in their capacity of **man-hunters**. They had fleets of canoes, and in these the warriors took to sea, paddling away to the coast of a distant island or shore, and there, by sudden descent upon some **village**, seizing the inhabitants and carrying them away as captives. When the prisoners were brought home the better class were at once slain and eaten, but the remainder were turned loose in the island until they should be in better condition. The Caribs looked upon these prisoners just as a less brutal savage scans his flocks and herds in expectation of the day for slaughter and feasting.

MYTH OF THE AMAZONIAN ISLANDS.

It is not difficult to discover in these circumstances the origin of the myth of the Amazonian Islands. The natives of the Bahamas and the Greater Antilles, and as far south as Porto Rico, on visiting the coast of the Caribbeans, saw only women. The men were abroad, plying their vocation of war. From this fact the belief would gain currency that certain islands were inhabited only by women. In this shape the tradition existed among the Guanahanians and Cubans when Columbus arrived among them.

The reactionary effects of cannibalism were sufficiently marked in the character and **manner** of the Caribs. They were fierce to the last degree, strong as tigers, courageous in **fight**, brutal and merciless. The women had the same characteristics as the men. The Spaniards soon learned the danger of a contest with the Amazons of these islands. Even the children were as young beasts ready for the prey. It was noted by Columbus that the natives took delight in making themselves appear as terrible as possible. To this end they painted their faces, putting great circles of bright color around their eyes, thus skilfully increasing the ferocity of the visage. Another usage was to tie cotton bands above and below the principal muscles of the arms and legs, by which, when the body was in action, the muscles were made to bulge out in prodigious knots. In short, every method known to savage ingenuity for increasing the fear-inspiring features of face and body was employed by the cannibals of these islands.

Strangely enough the Caribs were more civilized in some respects than the islanders of the northwestern clusters. The former had the more extensive improvements. Their chief town was laid out with a square in the centre. The better class of houses had porticos. Roads were surveyed with some regularity, and were better constructed than those of Cuba or Hispaniola. The people had some rude notions of the confederative principle in government. Guadaloupe was the centre of a league which included at least three of the principal islands. The natives were expert in the practice of their rude industries, particularly in the **management** of their canoes. In these they did not hesitate to commit themselves to the **open sea**, even to a distance of hundreds of miles from their native coast.

LOST IN THE GLOOMY FORESTS.

Resuming the narrative, we note during the stay of Columbus in Guadeloupe the first of many distressing incidents which he was now destined to encounter. Bands of men were frequently sent ashore to make explorations ; but always under strict orders as to plan and conduct. One company of eight men, under Diego Marquez captain of one of the vessels, went abroad without leave. After an absence of a whole day the party failed to reappear, and the Admiral grew uneasy. Other companies were sent out to find the missing men, but returned with no intelligence of them. Signals were made and guns fired, both from the ships and on the shore, but there was no response. Trumpeters were sent to the neighboring cliffs to sound the return, but still there was no answer.

With the following day the search was continued, but no vestige of the men could be found. The belief might be well entertained that they had been caught, killed and eaten by the islanders. It was hoped, however, that since the warriors were for the most part absent on an expedition, the Spaniards might be able to defend themselves against the women. The Admiral was unwilling to sail away while the fate of his sailors, or any one of them was undetermined. In this emergency he bethought himself of the daring and courageous Ojeda. That adventurer was accordingly given a company of volunteers and sent into the interior of the island to scour the country in all directions in the hope of rescuing the missing party. The expedition of Ojeda must again remind the reader of some of the similar exploits and services of Captain John Smith. His excursion about the island was not only a search, but an exploration. He noted in his progress from place to place, through the dense native woods, over the hills and along the verdant valleys of the interior, the unexampled luxuriance of the vegetation, the abundance of fruits, the fertility of the soil, the odorous balm of the woods, and in particular the abundance of wild honey. But the stragglers could not be found.

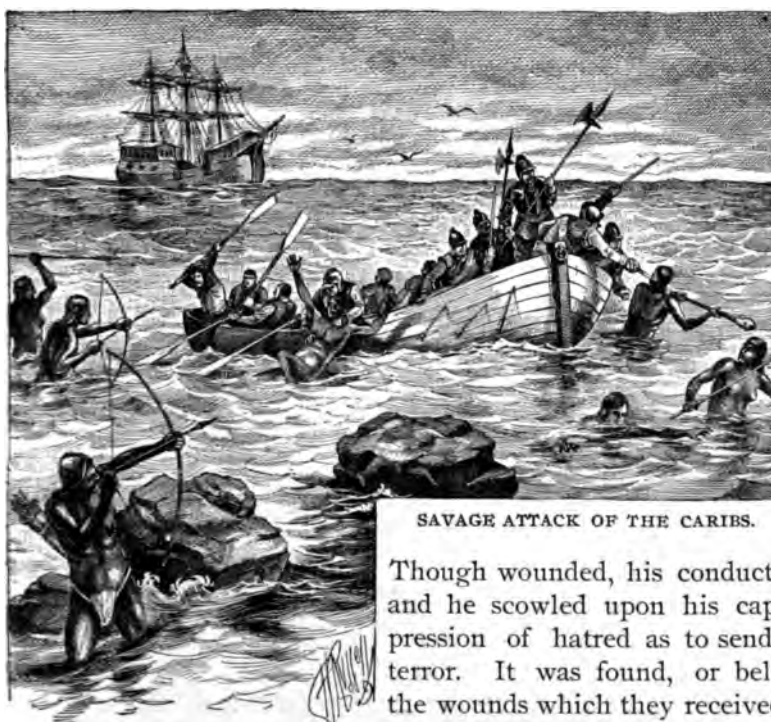
Several days elapsed, and the necessity for continuing the voyage was imminent, when unexpectedly the missing sailors appeared on the shore. It transpired that upon plunging into the forest they had lost themselves. Their senses had become confused, and they had wandered on farther and farther through impenetrable thickets and over ledges of rock, crossing unknown rivers, tearing their clothes away in patches on brambles and thorns, totally unable to regain the points of the compass or to imagine the direction of the ships. At last, when about to perish, they had come to the coast, and following it for a short distance, had the good fortune to spy the vessels when they were just about to weigh anchor. The joy of all at the recovery was great ; but the indignation of the Admiral against the captain for his disobedience of orders was such that he had him put under arrest, and the whole company were reduced in their rations as an exemplary punishment for their recklessness and insubordination.

Their stay on Guadeloupe island lasted for six days, when the voyage continued northward through the Leeward cluster, several of which were named, among the number being the little island of Nevis on which, two hundred and sixty-four years later, was born a great character, whose profound and lucid genius, more than that of any other man, contributed to the Constitution of the United States—Alexander Hamilton.

A FIGHT IN WHICH TWO SPANIARDS ARE WOUNDED.

Farther on the expedition reached Santa Cruz and Santa Ursula. At the former island a pause was made to replenish the store of water, as well as to make a casual examination of the country. The company sent ashore found a Carib town which was held by women and boys, no men being seen. It was found that many of those in the settlement were captives who were awaiting their turn to be killed and eaten. Several of these were taken with

little resistance on their part; for to them it was small matter by whom they were to be devoured. While returning to the shore to embark with the captives, the Spaniards perceived a boat-load of Caribs paddling around the headland not far away. For a moment the Indians seemed paralyzed with wonder, and the Spaniards in their boats were able to get between them and the shore. Hereupon the Caribs, taking the alarm, seized their bows and sent a shower of arrows among their adversaries, at least two of whom, at the first discharge, were seriously wounded. It was noticed that some of the women in the boat were as expert with the bow as the men. The Spaniards held up their bucklers and bearing down upon the canoe, overturned it in the water; but the Indians continued to fight,



SAVAGE ATTACK OF THE CARIBS.

swimming and discharging their arrows at the same time. Some found a lodgment on rocks and reefs in the shoal water, and were taken with the greatest difficulty. At length all were captured, including a woman and her son, who seemed to be the queen and the prince of the tribe. The latter was thought by the Spaniards to be the fiercest specimen of a human being they had ever beheld. They described him as having the face of an African lion.

Though wounded, his conduct was defiant in the last degree, and he scowled upon his captors with such a hideous expression of hatred as to send through them a shudder of terror. It was found, or believed by the Spaniards, that the wounds which they received in the skirmish were inflicted by poisoned arrows. One of the Spaniards soon died from his injury, and his body was afterwards conveyed by the Admiral to San Domingo for burial.

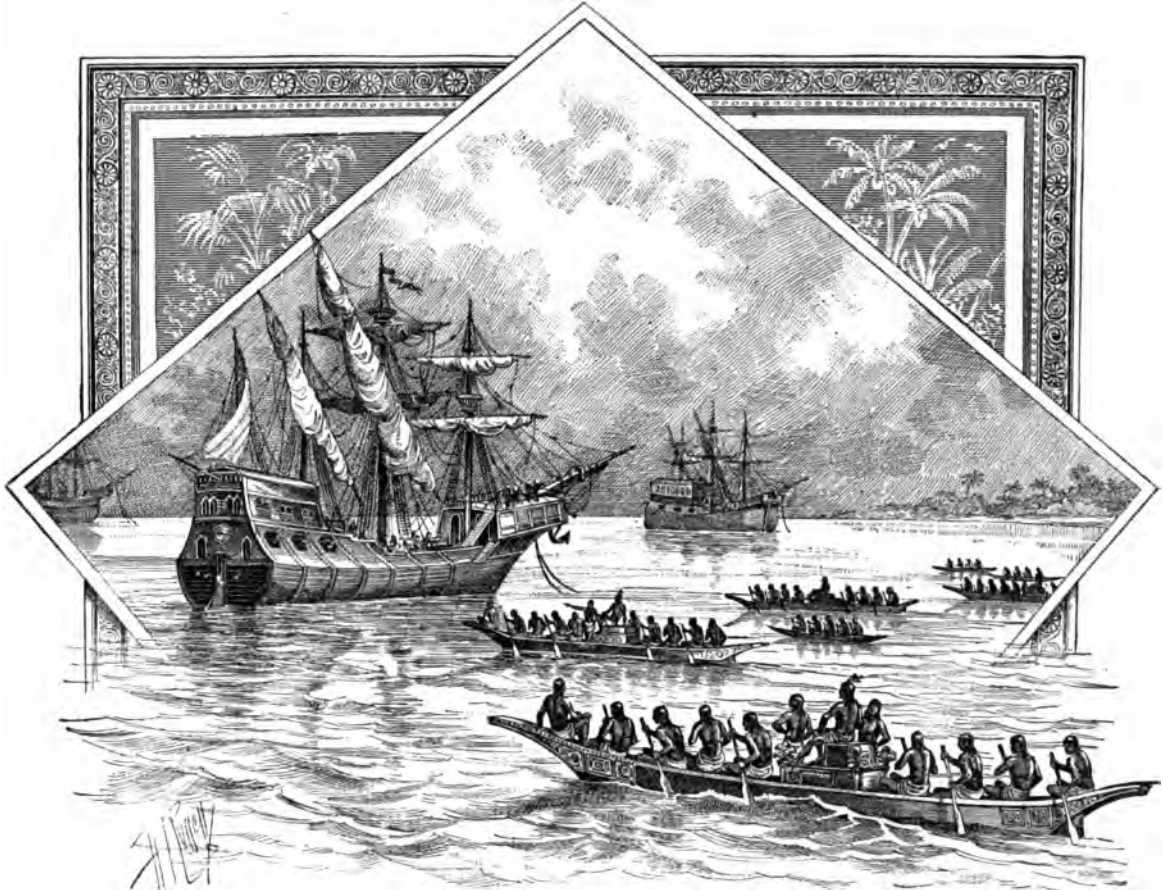
Around Santa Ursula the Admiral discovered a rocky archipelago, the summits rising here and there to considerable heights and constituting a group of islands, some of which were luxuriant and others sterile and bare. Sailing in this cluster was difficult and dangerous, and the exploration of the group, to which the Admiral gave the name of the Eleven Thousand Virgins, was made by a single light caravel which made its way through the tortuous channels between the fifty or more islands that were sighted, some of which at least were inhabited by men of the Carib race.

Still farther to the west and north the squadron reached a larger island, nearly in the form of a parallelogram, lying under the latitude of 18° N. This was called by the natives Boriquen, but was named by the Admiral San Juan Baptista, that is, St. John the Baptist, and is known in modern geography as Porto Rico. Here the fleet made its way out of the Carib islands and found a modified native population such as belonged to Cuba and the Bahamas. The aborigines of Boriquen were not so warlike and roving as the true Caribs, and on account of their peaceful disposition suffered much at the hands of the cannibals.

Along the coast, where the latter were in the habit of making their incursions, the natives of the island were more courageous, having learned from their adversaries the use of the bow and the war club. According to common fame, they sometimes revenged themselves on the Caribs by devouring such captives as fell into their hands. But the body of the inhabitants were a peaceable folk, subsisting on fruits of the soil and fish.

IN SEARCH OF THE COLONY LEFT AT LA NATIVIDAD.

After a considerable stay at Porto Rico, Columbus, having satisfied his curiosity respecting the Caribs, set sail direct for Hispaniola, the western extremity of which he reached without further incident. His return to the island was greeted with much rejoic-



FOUR CACIQUES VISIT THE SPANIARDS ON BOARD THE SHIPS.

ing by the natives who had seen him or heard of his previous visit. Four caciques, accompanied by hundreds of Indians, came off in canoes to the ships, and besought the Spaniards to make a permanent camp on shore, promising to lead them to mines of gold, where the precious metal might be easily gathered in the greatest quantities. But Columbus had heard such stories so frequently before that he was not to be deceived by them now, so, after distributing presents among the chiefs, he continued towards Natividad, which he was now anxious to reach and learn how the affairs of the colony, which he had there planted nearly one year before, were progressing. He accordingly sailed along the coast and entered the bay of Samana, where he had had his first encounter with the natives of the New World. Anxious to renew his intercourse with the people, the Admiral sent out one of his Guanahanian

interpreters, finely clad and laden with presents. But strangely enough, the man did not return. Nor was the Admiral ever able to ascertain what became of him. The other Guanahanian, through many vicissitudes, past and to come, remained staunch in his loyalty to Columbus, accompanying him wherever he went, proud to receive and bear the baptismal name of Diego Colon, the Admiral's brother.

By the 25th of November the fleet reached Monte Christo and anchored there, while the coast was surveyed at the mouth of Gold River in search of a site for a fortress. Here it was that the first indications were discovered of those dire disasters which now began to rise and darken the pathway of Columbus during all the remainder of his life. While the exploring party were traversing the shore, they found a human carcass tied by the wrists and ankles with a Spanish cord to a stake *in the form of a cross*. Also near by was the body of a boy. Both cadavers were in such a state of decay that it could not certainly be known whether they were Spaniards or Indians. But the significant cross pointed to the suspicion that they were Europeans, and if so, certainly men of the colony of Natividad. The sign of crime was therefore sufficiently portentous.

This horrible discovery proved to be indeed only the precursor of worse things to come. On a further examination of the coast, two other bodies were found, and though these also were reduced to little more than grinning skeletons, one of them was discovered to wear a beard. This told the story. The victim had certainly been a Spaniard. The indications of violence and death were well calculated to awaken the most serious apprehensions in the mind of Columbus respecting the state of affairs in the island. He was, however, much cheered by the conduct of the natives, who acted in a manner so frank, so little indicative of treachery, that he could but hope everything might still be well with the men whom he had left under De Arana in the fort.

Within two days from leaving Monte Christo, the fleet arrived at the anchorage of La Natividad. The hour was late in the evening, and a landing was impracticable until the morrow. It was hoped, however, that notification might be given to the colony by the firing of a cannon. But the reverberations died away, and no response came from the fortress. About midnight, however, an Indian canoe came near the squadron, and the natives shouted for Columbus. They were directed to the *Maria Galante*, but would not go on deck until the Admiral himself was seen by the lamps at the railing. Then their caution was dismissed, and they were taken up, and found to be an embassy from Guacanagari, the leader being a cousin of the cacique. As usual in such matters, they brought presents, the principal one being two masks eyed and tongued with gold.

STORY OF THE MASSACRE OF THE GARRISON.

But the Admiral was far more concerned about other matters than of the things of which they chose to speak, and he eagerly inquired of the Indians what had become of his garrison—why they did not answer to his signals. At this the natives were somewhat embarrassed; but they managed, by means of the interpreter, to tell a tolerably consistent story. They said the Spaniards under De Arana had a quarrel and fight among themselves, in which several lives were lost, and that sickness had carried off quite a number. Others still had married native wives and settled in distant parts of the island. But worse than this, they gave an account of an invasion of the province of Guacanagari by the warlike Caonabo, cacique of the gold regions in the mountains of Cibao. He with a strong band had burst into the village of their chieftain, had slain many, wounded many more, and burnt the houses. Among the wounded was Guacanagari himself, who, but for his injuries, would have come at once to the Admiral. The reason for this onset was that the friendly

cacique had sought to protect the Spaniards from the rage of Caonabo, who had gone to war with them on account of their conduct towards him and his people. Whether any of the Spaniards remained alive the messenger did not say.

Morning came, bringing with it the greatest anxiety. On looking out towards shore the Spaniards could perceive no signs of life. Instead of the native multitudes, only the waving trees were seen along the coast, and only the light murmur of the surf was heard as it fell and broke among the rocks. Meanwhile Columbus had entertained the Indian embassy, and before the coming of dawn had sent them ashore laden with presents. They had gone promising to return during the day and bring Guacanagari with them.

The only circumstance calculated to relieve the despondency and fears of the Admiral was the fact that the natives seemed to be friendly and unconscious of wrong-doing. During the forenoon a boat-load of Spaniards was sent ashore to ascertain definitely the situation. Fort Natividad was in ruins. It appeared that the place had been carried by assault, broken down, and the remnant burnt. Fragments of the contents of the fort were scattered about, and these relics included shreds of Spanish garments, presenting a scene of death and desolation. With these grueful relics before them, they could no longer doubt that the worst of calamities had befallen Arana and his men. As for the natives, they carefully kept aloof. Though a few were seen hiding in the woods at a distance, not one came near to explain further the destruction of the fort and its occupants.

When these tidings were borne back to the Admiral he was in the greatest distress, and went directly on shore to examine the ruins of the fort himself. Unable to gain any clue as to its destruction and the disappearance of his men at the first examination, he deemed it expedient to make a more systematic search. Possibly some of the Spaniards might still live, and it was not inconceivable that a band of them, driven from the fort, had kept together and defended themselves until Caonabo and his warriors had retired to their own place. Several companies were accordingly despatched into the neighboring districts to search for any possible survivors of the disaster. The men went abroad firing their guns, shouting and blowing trumpets; but the only sounds that came back were the echoes from the woods and rocks, and wave-beats of the sea.

RELICS OF THE MURDERED MEN.

As for Guacanagari, he did not come, nor was any message sent by him to explain his absence. The Admiral at length concluded to seek him out, and accordingly advanced to the cacique's village, which, to his grief, he found burnt to ashes, and the same marks of violence about its ruins as had been found at Natividad. The conclusion seemed necessary that the town of the cacique, as well as the Spanish fort, had been taken and destroyed by the warriors of Caonabo. This circumstance, while it tended to dispel all hope of finding Arana and his men, seemed to establish the belief that the tribe of Guacanagari had remained loyal to the Spaniards.

The Admiral was so much concerned to know the truth that, returning to the coast, he renewed his investigations about the ruined fortress. He had given directions to Arana in case he and the garrison should be imperiled, to bury in the earth the treasures which they had accumulated. In the hope of finding some trace of the property, the well of the fort was examined, and the whole region round about, but there was no sign that these instructions had been obeyed, and the search was therefore continued along the coast.

On the coming of the Spaniards to a native village not far away the inhabitants fled, leaving their houses to be examined by the invaders. Here were found several articles which had belonged to the garrison, among which were an old anchor of the *Santa Maria* and a

Moorish cloak which was remembered as the property of De Arana. There were also several articles of clothing and bits of merchandise, pointing unmistakably to the spoliation of the fortress. In the meantime another company of explorers, nearer to Natividad, had found a kind of burial place, from which they recovered the remains of eleven of their companions, thus strengthening the belief with overwhelming proof that all had perished by violence.

It was with the greatest difficulty that Columbus could induce the natives to a renewal of intercourse. Nor could their conduct in this particular be well understood. If the subjects of Guacanagari were innocent, why should they keep aloof and exhibit such want of confidence? On the other hand, if they had not been loyal, how account for the destruction of the village of the cacique and his own wounds? The problem became an enigma, and there was great diversity of opinion among the Spaniards. De Buyl, the apostolic vicar, led the belief that all the Indians alike had been treacherous, and that the Admiral should proceed to punish them for their crime. He framed a theory that the cacique had burned his own village to conceal his perfidy—that the conduct of the natives could be explained only on the ground that they were crafty barbarians who well knew the awfulness of the crime that they had committed and dreaded retributive justice.

DEPRAVITY OF THE SPANIARDS CAUSES THEIR DESTRUCTION.

Columbus, however, was entirely unwilling to accept this disheartening and pessimistic view of the situation. He chose to believe that the work had been done by Caonabo and his people, and this conviction was accompanied by the well-grounded fear that the Spaniards had, by their own misconduct, brought the fatal visitation on themselves. With the progress of the investigation, the disconnected facts were slowly and imperfectly put together until a fairly reasonable story of the destruction of Arana and his company was produced; and the conclusion was of a kind to brand with shame and infamy the first settlement of white men ever planted in the New World.

It appeared in the sequel that as soon as the colony was established and the Admiral had sailed away, the true character of the colonists came out with dreadful realism. The men whom Columbus had brought with him on his first voyage to the West Indies were, as we have said, for the most part, of the lowest order. They had been roustabouts and criminals in the Spanish seaport towns, and, as the reader knows, had in many instances escaped impending penalties by embarkation through impressment. Such characters could but await the removal of authority to seize the combined freedom of barbarism and the viciousness of civilization.

It was in vain that De Arana had sought to curb and restrain the will and passions of his colonists. Finding that they could not be subjected to discipline by any force which the captain could exert, they at once abandoned themselves to the license of outrage and excess. Every evil impulse which for generations, although restrained under the compressive tyranny of despotic government had been transmitted with accumulating vehemence from father to son, now burst forth in the depraved descendants. They turned upon the mild-mannered Indians who had befriended and assisted them in every way to gain a footing and maintenance in the island, and began to treat them as though they were the mere instruments of their avarice and lust. They sallied forth from the fort against the express commands of the Admiral, and contracted licentious alliances with the native women, whom they refused to leave even when ordered by Arana, and indulged in a riot of debauchery horrible in its details.

Guacanagari had sought to appease the fury of Spanish passion by granting to each sailor two or three wives. But even this was not enough. The wretches, glorying in their

license, became like wild beasts, assaulting and seducing the wives and daughters of the head men of the tribe, and as if their crimes inspired greater lawlessness, they began to despoil the villages, carrying home therefrom great loads of merchandise and provisions.



In a few days the fort was converted into a robber's camp, and presently the men fell to quarrelling, brawling and fighting over the spoils, sometimes to the death. Others remained abroad, preferring the company of the native women. But a few, deprived of what they considered their share, began to form conspiracies. Pedro Gutierrez became the head of one band and Rodrigo de Escobedo of another. These two, being subordinate officers in the fortress, mutinied against the commander, and in a fight which took place on that account another Spaniard lost his life.

The party of Arana had been victorious, and Gutierrez and Escobedo left Natividad for another part of the Island. The remainder, composing a company of eleven, besides some native women whom they had taken as wives, set out for Cibao, to gather gold. In a short time they passed the boundaries of the district ruled by Guacanagari and entered the territory of Caonabo, the great cacique of Maguana, to whom the Spaniards had given the name of Prince of the Golden House. Subsequent investigations showed that this warlike chieftain was a native Carib, who had come as an invader into Hispaniola and there established himself with his headquarters in the gold regions.

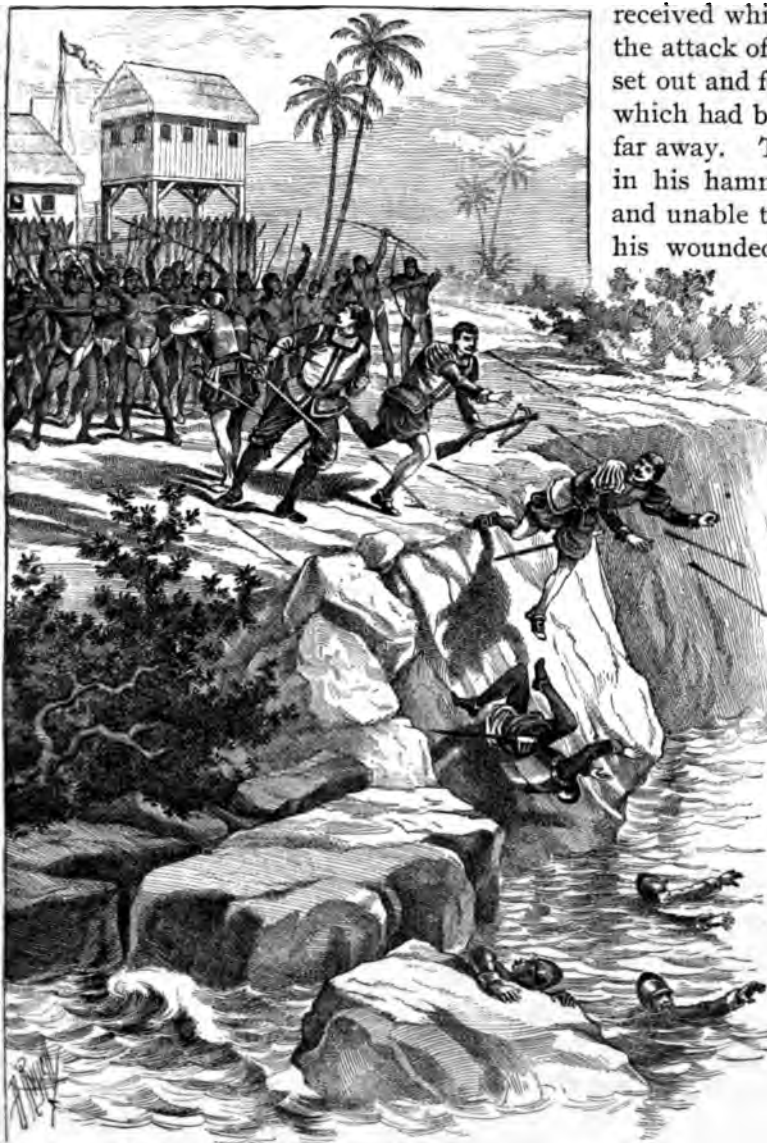
PARTICULARS OF THE MASSACRE.

The invasion of his territories by a mere handful of Spaniards could have but one result with the cacique. When the band of Gutierrez and Escobedo approached Cibao and began to ply their trade of getting gold, Caonabo sent out his warriors, who surrounded them and killed the last man of the company. The cacique then made a league with the neighboring chieftain of the province of Marien, and the combined forces of the two tribes were sent into the province of Guacanagari, to besiege the Spanish fortress and sweep it, with its garrison, from the face of the earth. The invasion was carried on with secrecy. The course pursued by Guacanagari is not certainly known; but it appears that he tried, at least formally, to defend the Spaniards from the enemy, for it can hardly be doubted that the village of the friendly cacique was burned, and that some of the Spaniards who were there at the time were killed in the attack. The hostile barbarians then crept upon the fort, where all precaution had been abandoned, and rushed in at a time when the garrison numbered only ten men. Two of these were killed, and the other eight fleeing from their pursuers plunged into the sea and were drowned. Not a man was left alive to tell the story. The fortress was sacked and burned, and the hostile warriors, after thus glutting their vengeance, returned to their own district.

It seems that after the withdrawal of the enemy, Guacanagari knew not what to do. Perhaps he doubted his ability to make things clear on the return of the Admiral. Perhaps he feared that when the great fleet came, he and his people would be overwhelmed in a common ruin by the vengeful foreigners. Possibly at heart he had felt some emotions of sympathy with the work of extermination which had been accomplished by the men of Cibao. In any event the situation was trying in the extreme. It would seem that the cacique had not the confidence to commit himself without reserve to the good faith of the

Admiral, and in his embarrassment, doubtless to save himself and his subjects, he adopted that subterfuge to which half-barbarous minds naturally resort in times of danger.

One circumstance tended strongly to convince even the Admiral that Guacanagari had been guilty of duplicity. It was claimed by the Indians who came as ambassadors from their cacique that he was prevented from visiting the Admiral by the injuries which he had



DESTRUCTION OF THE LITTLE GARRISON.

received while defending his village against the attack of Caonabo. Columbus presently set out and found his friend at a new village which had been extemporized for him not far away. The cacique, sure enough, lay in his hammock, surrounded by his wives, and unable to rise, on account, he said, of his wounded leg, which he claimed had been struck with a stone and so injured that he could not stand. The limb was bandaged to a great extent, and Columbus ordered his own surgeon, who was present, to examine the injury and see what could be done to relieve the chief. The bandages were accordingly taken off, and though the cacique made grimaces and complained of pain when the limb was handled, no trace of the alleged injury could be found, and this fact produced the natural suspicion that the wound and his story of it were a sham invented for effect.

Other warriors of the tribe, however, were found to have been really wounded, presumably by the arrows of the enemy; and of a certainty the cacique's village had been burned. All things considered, Columbus decided to give Guacanagari the bene-

fit of every doubt, and so, exhibiting no signs of distrust, he bestowed on the chieftain the usual gifts and went away. At this De Buyl was again greatly offended, for to him the evidence of guilt was so clear that he urged the Admiral to take a summary vengeance on the cacique, making him an example to all other offenders. But this counsel was rejected, and for the time amicable relations were maintained between the Spaniards and the natives.

THE NATIVE CHIEF FALLS IN LOVE.

The difference of opinion and policy between Columbus and the vicar was the commencement of a difficulty destined to become important. Buyl had in him the very soul of a persecutor, and nothing could have pleased him better than to see the headmen of the Indians burned at the stake, as his favorite method of introducing the new religion which he came to represent. It is an interesting historical study to see the contest between the vindictive spirit of this man and the humane disposition of the commander. But passing from this, we note the conduct of the latter in inviting Guacanagari, in spite of the suspicions against him, to visit the *Maria Galante* and share the hospitalities of his board. The act was one of kindness and policy also ; kindness, for by this means he sought in a generous way to restore the confidence of the chief ; policy, for he desired him to look upon the Carib prisoners whom the Spaniards had on board as warnings of what might be expected by all who durst attack or oppose the whites. The whole cargo of wonders, including the horses, swine and goats, was also shown to the cacique, to accomplish a similar purpose.

But human nature is always human nature. The barbarian, or half-barbarian, is ever of his own kind. Among the other subjects which the cacique found on the Admiral's ship was a company of captives from Porto Rico ; that is, they were liberated captives, whom the Caribs had taken and the Admiral recovered. With these Guacanagari began to converse by means of an interpreter. Among the rest was a queenly native woman called Catalina, with whom, as the sequel showed, the cacique fell violently in love. He conversed with her as much as possible in the lover's manner, and would fain have taken her on shore, but the opportunity was not presented until the following night, when the queen escaped by swimming ashore, and the next day Guacanagari disappeared, having eloped with the woman, so that neither was again seen by the Spaniards.



CHAPTER X.

THE COURAGE WHICH OVERCAME ALL ADVERSE CIRCUMSTANCES.



IF COLUMBUS had been affected by such adversities as crush the hopes of other men ; if his enthusiastic and wondrously imaginative nature had not sustained him in every ordeal that wrings the heart with despair ; if the sun of hope and confidence had not remained always visible above the horizon of his life, the world would have preserved no remembrance of his living. A nature that would have halted at obstacles would have bowed with despondency before such persecution as he received at the hands of Portugal's ruler ; but enduring these, the rejections of his proposals by Genoa, Venice, and by two learned Juntas, as well as the derision of ecclesiastics, would surely have driven any less persistent man to accept the hopelessness of his ambitions. But bearing up against all these opposing influences, like a vessel whose engines have sufficient power to hold her against the current, he bravely held on, continued on, until, behold, the reward of his unyielding activity is a glory that kings might crave.

The man who bared a resolute front to all the oppositions that obscurity, poverty, antagonisms and ridicule could offer was not to be daunted even by the discouraging aspect which a murdered colony presented. Hopeful as he was persistent, Columbus was not awakened from his dreams of conquest by the dreadful fate of those whom he had established as the nucleus of a vast commercial power, which he believed would expand in influence until it accomplished the Christianizing of the world of his discovery. The first seed had perished even as it lay in the ground, but he would now sow again and trust for a more favorable season. The first colony had wrought its own destruction, perhaps a second would be successful, and with this sanguine, trustful feeling he set about the planting of a settlement either above the graves of those who had fallen victims to their lustful, seditious and avaricious appetites, or to establish a colony near by, where there might be constant reminder of the fate of those who had subordinated virtue and honest duty to selfish greed and the basest desires of human nature.

AWAKENING TO HARSH CONDITIONS.

After the first excitement of the landing, despondency ensued, and the men began to realize something of the prosaic character of the enterprise in which they were engaged. Worst of all, they found that labor was a necessity of their situation. Houses would not build themselves. The fortress would not grow without human effort. Nothing could be accomplished on this virgin shore, any more than elsewhere, without strenuous exertion of mind and body. Here it was not merely a question of exciting adventure incident to the

gathering of golden sands from the banks and beds of impossible rivers. Toil, toil was the order, and all alike, cavaliers and soldiers though they were, must bend to the appointed task.

Again the situation can but impress the mind of the reader by its likeness to the founding of Jamestown by the English a hundred and fourteen years afterwards. Thus came disappointment and gloom instead of the exhilaration of ideal enterprises, and this fact tended to aggravate the diseases of the colonists.

Columbus, as we have said, felt his strength ebb away. He may have perceived—for the greatest minds are given to such intuition—that the golden but visionary schemes which had passed before his imagination, and which he had imparted to the King and Queen, lay farther away in their realization, and were to be reached by a rougher road than any which his feet had ever yet travelled. Moreover, the sorrows and weaknesses of old age were now coming upon him, and he could hold up no longer. No sooner had the preliminaries of the settlement been determined upon than his faculties of body and mind succumbed to the sore pressure, and for several weeks he was confined to his couch. During part of the time he was able to give directions for the prosecution of the work of laying out, building, fortifying and planting; but for the rest, the enterprise must be remanded to the hands of his subordinates. Whenever this was done, confusion began to reign as the result of cross purposes and lack of talent. It was thus under dismal auspices that the eventful year 1493 ended with small prospect that the Admiral would be able, in his first report to his sovereigns, to meet the glowing expectations which his own oversanguine temperament had given rise to at the court.

By the opening of the following year, all the materials of the fleet had been transferred to the shore, and there was no further need of the squadron. It had been predetermined that after the planting of the colony the greater number of the vessels should be sent back to Spain. It had also been intended by Columbus that these returning ships should be laden with the merchandise and treasures which he expected his colony of Natividad to gather during his absence. The disappointment in this respect was overwhelming. De Arana and his garrison had not only gathered nothing, but had lost all, including themselves—a melancholy awakening from delightful dreams.

The second voyage had thus far been an expedition of discovering and mere planting. No commercial intercourse had been opened or renewed with the native islanders. Indeed such a condition of unfriendliness and distrust now prevailed that it was doubtful whether any profitable trade could again be established with the Indians. But it was necessary to freight the ships with something, if only with an additional cargo of golden dreams. To this end the Admiral was constrained to rouse himself from his enfeebled condition and to prepare his report to his sovereigns. As in the case of all men of genius, his active mind foreran the event, and he sought to find in the surroundings such elements of success as might be truthfully wrought into a suitable report to gratify their Majesties.

AN EXPEDITION TO THE GOLD MINES.

To this end the Admiral deemed it expedient to send out exploring parties, two of which were organized and despatched into the gold country. The first of these was put under the command of Alonzo de Ojeda. To him nothing could have been more agreeable than the responsibility of an expedition into the mountains of Cibao, or, missing that, into the mountains of the moon. The other company was placed under a Captain Gorvalan, a cavalier of like disposition with Ojeda, but less adventurous. Both parties went out full-armed into the country of Caonabo, expecting to fight their way to the mines, which they

were directed to examine and explore, to the end that Columbus might faithfully inform their Majesties as to the probable gold yield of the island.

It required but two days to reach the hill country. On the third morning the gold fields were approached, and to the astonishment of the Spaniards the Indians of the district were not only friendly but familiar. They welcomed the strangers as brethren, fed them, lodged them,

aided them in every way to carry out their purpose. The formation of the island in this part was as peculiar as it was beautiful. The gold mountains constituted a range of moderate height, beyond which lay a plain traversed by many streams and occupied with numerous villages and a large population. Crossing this plain the adventurers came to a second ridge, out of which the rivers gathered their waters. This was the mining district; but there were no mines. Nevertheless the signs of gold were sufficiently abundant, for the sands of the running streams glittered



PREPARING FOR AN EXPEDITION TO THE GOLD MINES.

here and there with particles of the precious metal. Specimens of these sands were taken up and the gold gathered out with little difficulty, while some of the Spaniards were so fortunate as to pick up pieces of considerable weight.

Here, then, the secret was out. It was clear that the specimens of gold dust which the Spaniards had procured in other parts of the island, and farther north, had been derived from these mines of Cibao. But everything was in the native condition. Ojeda very properly concluded that the yield of the precious metal, as shown in the river sands, was

but a hint of the rich, perhaps limitless, treasures of the mountains. He accordingly surveyed the landscape and carried back to the Admiral a glowing report. The expedition of Gorvalan had a similar result. That captain had also discovered the gold country, and had gathered specimens from the sands and returned with a cheering account for the Admiral. Thus, while Columbus was not able to send home a cargo of treasure, he would fain transmit a glamour of visions and hopes.

A REPORT CALCULATED TO DECEIVE THE SOVEREIGNS.

It was under these conditions that the discoverer now prepared his report for the King and Queen. He determined to retain five ships from the squadron for his own use in the service of the colonists, and in prosecuting the work of discovery. The remaining twelve were put under command of Antonio de Torres for the return voyage. As for treasure he was able to send nothing except the specimens of gold-bearing sand which his lieutenants had gathered about Cibao, and to add some additional samples of the animal and vegetable products of the island. His report was of course the principal thing, and this, while it contained an account of the disaster which had befallen the garrison of La Natividad, of the sickness to which he and the colony had been recently subjected, and some complaints, well founded, of frauds and blunders committed by the home bureau in the preparation of the cargo and provision of the squadron, nevertheless glowed with the usual enthusiasm and promise of great things to come.

The document was prepared with his accustomed elaboration, embracing a report proper and many recommendations which the Admiral took the responsibility of making to the sovereigns. Some of these suggestions were of a kind to show forth in full sight not only the sentiments and opinions of the discoverer and his sovereigns, but also the general civilization in that age. Fortunately the document has been preserved to our own time, and the curious inquirer may still read not only the words of the Admiral, but the marginal comments which the sovereigns appended to each clause of the report. In the first place the Admiral opens with those formal and complimentary addresses which were the style in the fifteenth century, and even at a much later date, in all documents directed to royal personages. To these the King and Queen made on the margin this remark :

"Their Highnesses hold it for good service."

In the next place the Admiral gives an enumeration of the circumstances of the second voyage up to date, including an account of the various islands which he had discovered and visited, and finally of the planting and establishment of the colony of Isabella. To this the sovereigns affixed the co-marginal comment :

"Their Highnesses give much thanks to God, and hold as very honored service all that the Admiral has done."

In the third paragraph he tells of the ill fortunes that had come, explaining how his men had fallen sick, how the new plantation had been delayed, how it had become necessary to detail a considerable number of soldiers to guard the settlement from possible attacks by the natives, and how, for these reasons, he had been unable to gather and send home with the cargo any products or treasures worthy of the work. To this clause the sovereigns wrote in the margin the simple words :

"He has done well."

In the fourth place the Admiral went on to suggest the best means of gaining possession of the gold mines of Cibao. To this end he recommended that a fortress be built in the gold-producing regions, and that it should be garrisoned and held that the

mines might be systematically worked. To this proposition the sovereigns also gave their approval as follows :

"This is well and so it must be done."

The Admiral next proceeded to discuss the question of provisions for the new settlement, until such time as the products of the island, including new crops to be raised and gathered by the colonists, should be sufficient to render unnecessary all further draft on the mother country. This, too, received the approval of royalty with the marginal comment, thus :

"Juan de Fonseca is to provide for this matter."

In the next place Columbus proceeded to touch the delicate subject of the frauds and blunders that had been committed in the purchase and preparation of supplies for the squadron and the colony. This part related most of all to the wine which the bureau had supplied for the expedition. Very soon after the sailing of the fleet it was discovered that the wine-casks were old and leaky, and before the end of the voyage much of the supply had been wasted. Concerning this complaint the marginal comment of the sovereigns was as follows :

"Juan de Fonseca shall find out the persons who played this cheat with the wine-casks, that they may make good from their own pockets the loss, and also see that the sugar-canes (for the colony) are good, and that all that is here asked for be provided immediately."

We have already remarked above how greatly Columbus was distressed—how sensitive he was—relative to the failure of the expedition thus far to yield any profitable returns. He knew well enough that profit was expected. Indeed, that had been with the sovereigns the prevailing motive, and it is likely that glimpses of a probability had now reached the Admiral's judgment that the treasures of gold he had been seeking were still far remote. It was, therefore, expedient that he should, if practicable, divert the minds of their Majesties to some other enterprise, promising great and immediate advantages.

A RECOMMENDATION TO ENSLAVE THE NATIVES.

It is possible, therefore, or probable, that the next suggestions of his report were in part, at least, the result of a wish to point the royal mind to a new method of commercial gain. Or it may be that he conscientiously believed the recommendations made to be philanthropic and humane. The thing which he suggested in the next paragraph was based on a policy which he had on his own responsibility adopted with respect to the Caribs. The reader will recall the fact that while cruising among the cannibal islands Columbus seized a number of the natives and retained them as prisoners. These he now sent to Europe with the returning squadron, recommending to the sovereigns that the islanders should be taught Spanish, be baptized into the church, and that they be retained as slaves to serve as interpreters, or be made useful in other ways. He called attention to the fact that such a measure would be a just punishment for the Caribbeans, and that it would tend to inspire confidence in the other islands, where the people lived in dread of the cannibals. Of course the Admiral laid much stress upon the religious feature of the suggestion, insisting that the proposed subjection of the cannibals was to their own interest as well as to the benefit of Spain and the advantage of the whole colonial enterprise. But to this recommendation there was entered on the margin a guarded reply of the sovereigns, as follows :

"Their Majesties think this very well, and so it must be done ; but let the Admiral see whether it cannot be managed there that they (the Indians) should be brought to our Holy Catholic faith, and the same thing be done with the Indians of those islands where he now is."

Having thus opened the way Columbus proceeds boldly to the general suggestion of the enslavement of the natives as the best means of making them Christians, and of

gathering profit by new commercial relations that might be established on the foundation of a traffic in human beings. The Admiral suggests that the ships in the Indies could be laden with cargoes of natives, who might be exchanged in Spain for live stock and other supplies requisite for the purposes and development of the colony. The policy should be adopted by the Indian Bureau of sending out a fleet each year bearing all things demanded by the colonists, and the vessels, as soon as their cargoes could be discharged in the Indies, might gather an equivalent cargo of Indian slaves. It was necessary that this policy should be at once adopted and that the answer of the sovereigns should be transmitted by Antonio de Torres to the Admiral, so that the latter might proceed to capture the requisite ship-loads of cannibals for the return voyage. The project was sufficiently audacious and cold-blooded, being redeemed only from absolute shame and contempt by the intermixture of religious motives, real or fictitious, which the Admiral pleaded in justification of his proposals. In view of the situation the reader at the close of the nineteenth century will notice the reply of the Spanish sovereigns with peculiar interest :

"As regards this matter, it is *suspended* for the present until there come some other way of doing it there, and let the Admiral write what he thinks of this."

COLUMBUS SENDS HOME A CARGO OF SLAVES.

Certainly it was to the honor of Ferdinand and Isabella that they refused to adopt the suggestions made by their favorite, as to establishing a slave-trade in the West Indies. Whether or not they were moved thereto by reasons of justice and humanity, or whether they detected in the proposition elements of trouble and inexpediency, it would be difficult to say. A careful reading of their answer and comment would indicate that while it was deemed inexpedient to begin the enslavement of the Indians, there was nevertheless a reluctance on the part of the sovereigns to pronounce the interdict. They put it from them with such gentle kind of veto as Cæsar employed in rejecting the crown. The sarcastic comment of Casca might almost be repeated and applied—at least to Ferdinand, whose cold and subtle disposition we may discover in the language of refusal : "He put it by ; but for all that to my thinking he would fain have had it. . . He put it by again ; but to my thinking he was very loath to lay his fingers off it."

The proposal of Columbus was brought to the sovereigns in a very practical and emphatic way. The Carib prisoners were put on board the fleet and despatched to Spain as the earnest and first fruits of the enterprise. The monarchs were told that a system of royal revenue might be established by laying a duty on the slaves imported. In a word, the thing proposed was to be profitable to everybody; profitable to the colonists, for by this means their energies might be exerted in the excitement of slave-hunting, and at the same time their resources augmented by the supplies and merchandise to be brought from Spain in exchange for the captives ; profitable to the people of the mother country, for in this way they would obtain at cheap rates a full retinue of servants forever ; profitable to the merchants, for their cargoes would, under such a system, be expeditiously provided on both sides of the Atlantic ; profitable to the sovereigns, for hereby the royal revenue could be steadily replenished ; profitable to the Caribs themselves, for by the blessings of capture, deportation and sale, they would be rapidly civilized, saved from their sins and through all their sufferings be brought to Heaven. The inhuman fallacy was complete in all its parts and needed only the assent of the sovereigns to make it pass as the greatest civilizing argument of the age.

The returning squadron, under command of Antonio de Torres, left San Domingo on the 2d of February, 1494. Other communications from leading characters were added

to that of Columbus, generally corroborating his report and repeating his recommendations. Such was a letter from the apostolic vicar De Buyl, and such were the reports made by Ojeda and Gorvalan respecting their explorations in the mines of Cibao. On the whole, the information which the fleet was to bear back to Europe was of a kind to make up in a large measure for the disappointment in the matter of merchandise and gold. Thus, at the close of the winter the home-bound armada dropped out of sight, and the colonists of Isabella were left to resume and prosecute the necessary enterprises of the settlement.

SEDITION SHOWS ITS HORRID HEAD.

By this time the Admiral had recovered somewhat his wasted energies, and with returning strength he devoted himself to the administration of affairs. Never was government more difficult. The distraction of the colonists became extreme. Sickness increased rather than abated. Provisions began to fail, and the fare was as scant as the work was incessant. The Admiral established laws for the government of the colony, but these could hardly be enforced, for the character of perhaps a majority of the forbade them operation of wholesome rules for all.

Many of the men were of high rank by both birth and profession. There were young hidalgos who had never before been obliged to stoop to toil. There were courtiers from Barcelona, and functionaries whose immemorial business it was to live by the labor of others. The viceroy could make no exceptions in the application of his laws, and sullen rage and vindictiveness soon appeared among those who were compelled, as they thought, like slaves, to toil in building houses and fortifying the town. Some began to complain of the Admiral and his government. Discontent grew rife, and conspiracy soon builded its nest and hatched its dangerous brood.

Now it was that the celebrated Bernal Diaz, of Pisa, a man of rank and influence, but of a low grade of moral principle, appeared as the leader and mouthpiece of the malcontents. In him all the Adullamites of the island discovered a vent for their rage against the Admiral. He held the appointment of comptroller of the colony, and in this office he soon showed his disagreeable and seditious spirit. In the gloomy days which came down after the departure of the squadron for Spain, Diaz conceived the project of virtually destroying the enterprise by secret mutiny. His scheme contemplated the seizure of the ships, or at least most of them, and a departure from the island with all on board who desired to return home. The leader had persuaded himself that all this discovery of the Indies, and in particular all the representations made by the Admiral respecting the resources of the islands and their commercial importance to the Spanish government, were fallacious, misleading, and in short without foundation in fact. It was believed by the conspirators that on reaching Spain they could appeal to the sovereigns, having Bernal Diaz—himself a man of the court—for their spokesman, and easily persuade them that they had been duped, deceived and cajoled by the foreign Admiral, who had gained an unmerited ascendancy in their confidence.

OVERCOMING THE MUTINOUS SPIRITS.

While this perfidious business was still in the egg another factor was added to the cabal. A certain Fermin Cedo, who was the assayer of the colony and, as the sequel showed, a charlatan, ignorant of the work he professed, joined himself with Bernal Diaz, and encouraged the mutiny with a false statement respecting the gold product of the island. He declared that the reports relative to the mines of Cibao were without foundation; that nothing more than a few scattering particles of the precious metal had been found by the explorers; that the better specimens—small ingots and the like brought home by the

exploring party, or procured in trade with the natives—had been produced by melting down a quantity of the gold-dust, and that such specimens signified nothing in the general estimate. He also alleged that much of the reputed gold was spurious, being nothing more than macasite, or some such mineral. Since the hopes of the colonists were centred on mining and the gathering of precious stones, these declarations of the assayer prevailed with many, even against the testimony of their own senses.

The occasion seemed auspicious for the success of the scheme. The Admiral was again confined to his couch by sickness. The conspirators might avail themselves of this fact and get away without discovery. Nevertheless the thing was borne at length to the ears of Columbus, and he was enabled to nip the project in the bud. Bernal Diaz, Cedo and several other leaders of the mutiny were seized and put under guard on the vessels. A search instituted by the Admiral brought the whole thing to light. The plan of the enterprise, including the report which the conspirators were to make to the Queen and King, drawn up in the handwriting of Bernal Diaz, was discovered, and the whole sedition was thus suddenly delivered over to the master.

It was the first time in which anything had occurred of such a character as to make punishment a necessity. Columbus deemed it prudent, however, not to proceed against Diaz himself, but to remand him, with all the proofs, to the Spanish authorities. The



COLUMBUS BEFORE THE MUTINEERS.

leading mutineer, with several others, was accordingly confined on board one of the ships until such time as they might be sent to Spain for trial. Other precautionary measures were taken against the possible revival of the sedition. All the guns, munitions and supplies of the fleet were transferred to a single ship, and this was put in com-

mand of officers known to be devoted to the interests of the Admiral. The measures were salutary enough, and the effect was marked by some immediate improvement in the discipline and progress of the colony. But it was noted by the Admiral himself that the wounds and alienations produced by the event could not be healed. Confidence was never again fully restored among the colonists of Isabella, and the cloud began to settle on the Admiral which was never to be lifted.

ANXIETY OVER PORTUGAL'S ACTIVITY.

With the recovery of his health Columbus deemed it expedient to prosecute at least two of the general objects for which the enterprise had been undertaken. The first of these was to continue the work of exploration. In order to understand the strong motive for the immediate enlargement of the borders of discovery in the Indies (as they were supposed to be), the reader must recur to the intense rivalry existing between Spain and Portugal. The decision of the Pope had been against the latter power; that is, the decision had been in the nature of an interdict against Portuguese enterprise towards the west. But there was nothing to hinder—indeed, much to encourage—the endeavor of the Portuguese mariners to reach the Indies by the eastern route.

This question had continued uppermost in Spain and Portugal, leading at length to the

discovery of a water route by the east to India, which was found by De Gama four years later. A knowledge of Portugal's activity and ambitions was therefore a spur to Columbus to accomplish, as quickly as possible, the full possession, by discovery and occupation, of the rich Pagan countries of the east. But while thus eager to anticipate the Portuguese he entertained a project having a local significance, though it was a preliminary step towards the attainment of his larger ambitions. Accordingly, Columbus acquainted Ferdinand and Isabella with his proposal to enter the gold fields of Hispaniola, and take permanent possession of them by the erection of a fort. As his purpose was to thereby establish a local government at Isabella, thus enabling him to proceed to the accomplishment of his other mission, their Majesties promptly approved his plans.

OFF FOR THE GOLD MOUNTAINS OF CIBAO.

As soon, therefore, as he had succeeded in suppressing the sedition of Diaz, the Admiral issued an edict committing the government of Isabella, as well as the command of the ships in the harbor, to his brother, Don Diego, and a council of municipal officers by whom he was to be advised and assisted.

Having made these preparations at Isabella the Admiral proceeded at once to organize his expedition for the gold region. To this end he selected about four hundred of the well and able-bodied colonists, preferring the young and adventurous. The movement involved the arming of the whole band; for, in the existing state of things, the loyalty of the natives, how much soever manifested, could not be depended on under trial. In fact, the object of the expedition was as much military as it was industrial.

It was on the 12th of March that the equipment of the cavalcade was complete, and the march began. To such men as those composing the regiment action was everything. They rejoiced to be once more freed from the servility and lethargy of the settlement. It was like going again on a campaign in the Moorish war. The start was accompanied by all the demonstrations and spectacular scenes peculiar to the age and the race. The greater number were organized as a cavalry brigade. They were armed, and for the most part armored, cap-a-pie, and rode out with their lances and shining helmets, and clumsy but formidable arquebuses, which at intervals they discharged, making the green woods ring with the unfamiliar music of musketry. Meanwhile many natives, drawn after the cavalcade, like curious boys following in the wake of a menagerie, hung around the expedition, joining in the advance as much as they were permitted to do, and seemingly well content at the strange invasion of their country.

FERTILITY AND BEAUTY OF THE ROYAL PLAIN.

For the first day or two of the advance, the route lay through a somewhat broken and difficult country, rising from the sea-level, but still bearing the matted thickets and heavy forest of the coast. At length the way became difficult, and it was necessary to widen the path for the invaders. A company of advanced guards and pioneers was accordingly organized, and for this service the young noblemen, now aroused from their apathy and discontent, gladly volunteered. In honor of their endeavor, the Admiral gave to their new military road—the first highway opened by European hands in the New World—the name of *El Puerto los Hidalgos*, that is, the Pass of the Hidalgos.

After this preparation the expedition, following the route already explored by Ojeda, reached the crest of the ridge dividing the province of Caonabo from the territory of the coast-people. It was the first of many such situations which we shall see repeated in the adventures and campaigns of Europeans in the New World to the time when, in the summer of 1847, the invading army of the United States looked down from the rocky heights of the

Cordilleras upon the valley of Mexico. Before the Spaniards stretched the beautiful plain of Cibao. According to the estimate of Las Casas it was two hundred and forty miles from east to west, and as much as thirty miles in breadth, a region capable under such culture as that of the Netherlands of supporting several millions of inhabitants. At the time of the invasion, however, only Indian villages, scattered sparsely over the landscape, were seen.

This vision of a beautiful and marvellously fertile valley might, in other more refined and appreciative minds, have suggested vast cities, peaceful populations, and blessings of a splendid civilization, but the Spaniards were so besotted with vice and avarice that they could consider it only for its possible mineral productions; for the gold that might lie hidden in the river sands and in the mountains that reared their heads high into the region of cloud-land. They accordingly descended into this delightful valley, called by Columbus

Vega Real, the Royal Plain, and set their way across it towards the gold-bearing mountains.



OVERLOOKING THE VEGA REAL.

In traversing this beautiful district orders were given, on approaching the first village, to enter after the manner of a cavalry charge. So the trumpets were sounded, the banners shaken out, and the Hidalgo horsemen rode forward, their armor flashing in the sun. The people of the plain had never before seen

horses, and to their astonished and credulous gaze the oncoming of the cavalry seemed as a charge of armored centaurs might have appeared to the early inhabitants of the Grecian archipelago.

FALSE SECURITY OF THE NATIVES.

In the face of such an apparition, there was of course no show of fight. Columbus failed to discover in the towns of Vega Real those bands of fierce warriors whom, according to report, Caonabo had led in the preceding year against Guacanagari and Fort Natividad. On the contrary, the Indians of this region seemed almost as timid as their fellows of the coast. They fled before the Spaniards, some escaping into the woods and others taking refuge in their houses. It was a matter of amusement to the Spanish soldiers to see the simple natives building flimsy barricades of cane-reeds across the doors of their huts. The obstructions were not such as to have impeded the charge of a ram, and yet the Indians seemed to think themselves safe from assault behind their wicker defences. The Admiral gave orders to humor the natives in all particulars; and it was not long before their confiding disposition showed itself in familiarity and free intercourse. As the expedition advanced, the natives of the town thronged around the army, and the usual traffic was begun. The Indians had a keen perception in discovering the thing most desired, and before reaching their destination the Spaniards were able to procure considerable quantities of gold dust.

On the second day Columbus discovered a river which proved to be the headwaters of the Rio del Oro, but here the country became so rough that farther progress had to be made on foot, up the sides of lofty foot-hills, which had now been reached. In small streams falling down the mountain sides glittering particles of gold were found, and this discovery determined Columbus to build here a fort, the point being sixty miles from Isabella. A suitable location was quickly found on a fine plateau around which two small streams uniting formed almost a circle. No sooner had the expedition halted than jasper, lapis lazuli,

amber and other valuable products were found, and a profitable trade was opened with the Indians, who freely exchanged ingots of gold, weighing as much an ounce, for any brilliant gewgaw that was offered them.

After great labor a fort of considerable strength was built and named St. Thomas, the ruins of which are still to be seen. Being now placed in a good state of defence, Columbus sent out an exploring party under Juan de Luxen to traverse the surrounding country. He was accompanied by Indian guides who showed him where gold was said to abound, but though signs of the precious metal were often seen in the beds of small streams, it was not discovered in any place in considerable quantities.

After a stay of two weeks at St. Thomas, Columbus returned to Isabella, leaving a company of fifty-six men to serve as a garrison, but stopped on the way at the village of Vega Real to purchase from the Indians a fresh supply of food. He was here enabled to make a study of the social condition of the natives and to note the character of their agriculture, and marvelled at the fecundity of the soil, which seemed to produce as if by magic. But on reaching Isabella his wonder in this same particular was increased by what had developed during his absence. He found the plantation, which had been laid out scarcely more than one month before, already yielding ripe melons, pumpkins, cucumbers and fruits in extraordinary abundance.

SERIOUS TROUBLE ARISING FROM ABUSES OF THE GARRISON.

Drought and barrenness were unknown. Moisture pervaded the teeming surface of the earth, and the genial sunshine caused it to produce in abundance. The addition of new fruits planted by themselves gave delight to the colonists, and the first bunch of Spanish grapes, blushing to purple in the caresses of the tropical air, was a prevision of the coming day of wine and plenty. The Admiral could but be delighted with the outlook, and for a few days he was again happy and exuberant in hopes.

But it was not long until misfortune returned. A messenger arrived from Fort St. Thomas with bad tidings of the new settlement. The Indians had become first suspicious and then hostile. They had withdrawn altogether from the vicinity of the Spanish settlement, and receded from sight in the mountains and forests. It was evident that a conspiracy of some kind was ripening. Pedro Margarite, the commandant, had become alarmed, and requested the Admiral to send him reinforcements and supplies. On inquiring into the circumstances the latter soon perceived the cause of the trouble. It was the old story of Arana and La Natividad. No sooner had Columbus retired, leaving another in charge of his outpost, than disorder appeared, following as a quick result of unbridled license. The soldiers began to wander about and inflict injuries and outrages on the natives. Wherever they could find gold they took it. The old savage nature of the man-beast, recovering its freedom, ran hither and yon devouring like a tiger from the jungle. Lust was added to robbery. The Spaniards demanded and took the Indian women without waiting to inquire whether they were wives, widows or virgins.

Meanwhile Caonabo, who had held aloof with his warriors, leaving the village folk to get on with the Spaniards as best they might, rallied with the evident purpose and will of vengeance. It was not likely, however, that these manifestations could lead to serious results. No catastrophe might be feared in a battle between the natives and the Spanish soldiers, provided always that the latter were under discipline. The Admiral sent back to Fort St. Thomas a company of twenty men as reinforcements, and also a new stock of pro-

visions. Meanwhile he despatched another company to improve and perfect the road between his two principal stations in the island.

At Isabella, though nature seemed to smile, and showered from her cornucopia all manner of gifts upon the colonists, yet on the human side of the problem there were sufficient grounds for apprehensiveness and foreboding. The sickness prevailing, instead of growing less with the advancement of the season, seemed to be aggravated. The Spaniards appeared unwilling or unable to adapt themselves to the climatic condition. Their excesses told fearfully upon their health and spirits. The disease was of the mind as well as of the body. Melancholy, despondency, discontent, sullen moping, and every other ill of the human spirit, when once it fell under the dominion of pessimism, tormented and depressed the colonists with an ever-darkening mental cloud. As to ills of the body, there were fevers and dysenteries and congestions, and, worst of all, the outbreak and prevalence of those horrid diseases which, since the epoch of the Crusades, were rapidly becoming at once the scourge and the hell of the human race.

A HORRIBLE CONDITION OF AFFAIRS.

For all this there was but slight remedy. Medical science, in so far as such science exists among men, has always adapted itself in practice to a certain environment. The physician has, out of the nature of the case, been unable to generalize to any great extent beyond the limits of that horizon within the boundary of which he has familiarized himself with the natural and morbid conditions of life. At the close of the fifteenth century medicine was still mere empiricism in its crudest form. The Spanish doctors who accompanied the expedition were totally unacquainted with the conditions of health and disease in the new lands at which they had arrived. Their supply of medicines gave out, and nature, depraved by disease, was left to take her course.

By this time several kinds of provisions were exhausted, and it was difficult to procure such diet and such nursing as were required for the sick. About the beginning of April the supplies were so diminished that the rations of the well were reduced to almost a minimum, and this circumstance added to the discontent and gloom. At last the flour of the colony ran out, and the work of grinding new supplies by hand-mills was severe and irksome. To set the Spanish soldier—who had fought in the Moorish war and stood near the sovereigns when the Islamites came out to deliver to them the keys of Granada—to grinding on miserable hand-mills, in order to keep himself and his fellows from starvation, was more than human nature could bear without protesting; but the Admiral would make no exception, even with the priests. He enforced his regulations and discipline with a strong and impartial hand, and the result was the reappearance of sedition.

In this instance a head centre of the mutinous spirit was found in the vicar, De Buyl, who, though a member of the council, gave countenance to the malcontents, promising to defend them against the exactions of the governor, until the latter, discovering the infidelity and treachery of the priest, reduced him to the ranks and put him on short fare as a punishment. This was an unforgivable thing, and the vicar was henceforth the enemy of the Admiral and his government. But this action did not arrest the fatalities. The reader may well be reminded of the starving time at Jamestown or the desolation of the first Puritan colonists at Plymouth. Under such conditions the leader is blamed for everything. But for him, says the common prejudice, we should never have been provoked to leave our homes and been led forth into these far lands of fever and scrofula to die of starvation and despair.

PREPARATIONS FOR AN EXPEDITION.

It was in this emergency that Columbus devised the project of additional exploring expeditions, rather as a means of revival by reaction and excitement than with the expectation of great discoveries. The idea of the new enterprise was to organize several companies of the discontented at Isabella and to despatch them on adventures into the interior of the island. Many parts, even the greater part, of Hispaniola had not yet been visited by the Spaniards. No intercourse had been opened with at least two of the caciques. Besides, the hostility of Caonabo might supply an excuse for one of the expeditions.

The Admiral found, after duly considering his resources, that a considerable force of well men still remained for the work in hand, and he was therefore able to organize an expedition of cavalry, infantry, crossbowmen, and arquebusiers. For the present, an command was given to Alonzo de Ojeda. That officer was to lead the whole as far as Fort St. Thomas, when he was to turn over the little army to Pedro Margarite, and become himself the commandant of the fortress.

As to the conduct of the expedition Columbus prepared full instructions for Margarite, entering into details respecting his intercourse with the Indians and indeed all contingencies that might arise. The captain was ordered to hold everything in strict military subjection. Provisions should be obtained from the natives by public purchase. The comptroller, Bernal Diaz, was to act as the commissary officer of the expedition. There should be no private trade with the Indians. The latter should in all instances be treated with kindness and justice. Theft, to which the natives were somewhat addicted—though they themselves hardly regarded the act of taking without leave as a criminality—was to be properly punished. Regard must be had to the conversion of the natives. The campaign was to be directed first of all into the country where Caonabo had his town. That cacique, against whose conduct Columbus had a just resentment, was to be taken with his chieftains and delivered over for trial this on account of the destruction of La Natividad and the killing of the garrison. In the capture of Caonabo, duplicity and stratagem might be used, the same being among the methods of warfare which the Admiral had discovered in the native usages. The instructions were amply sufficient for a well-ordered and decent campaign of exploration, commerce and the contingency of war.

Having completed these arrangements Columbus next gave his attention to a new enterprise of his own. This was no less than the long-postponed voyage of discovery, which was a part of his general plan. As for the local expedition, Ojeda set out from Isabella on the 9th of April, and proceeded by water as far as the estuary of Gold River, for the identity of that stream with the river found in the Royal Vega, near the gold fields, had now been determined, and it was the purpose of Ojeda to ascend the stream, first by water and afterwards by land, to his destination. This would be an easier route than the Pass of the Hidalgos, so laboriously followed on the former occasion.

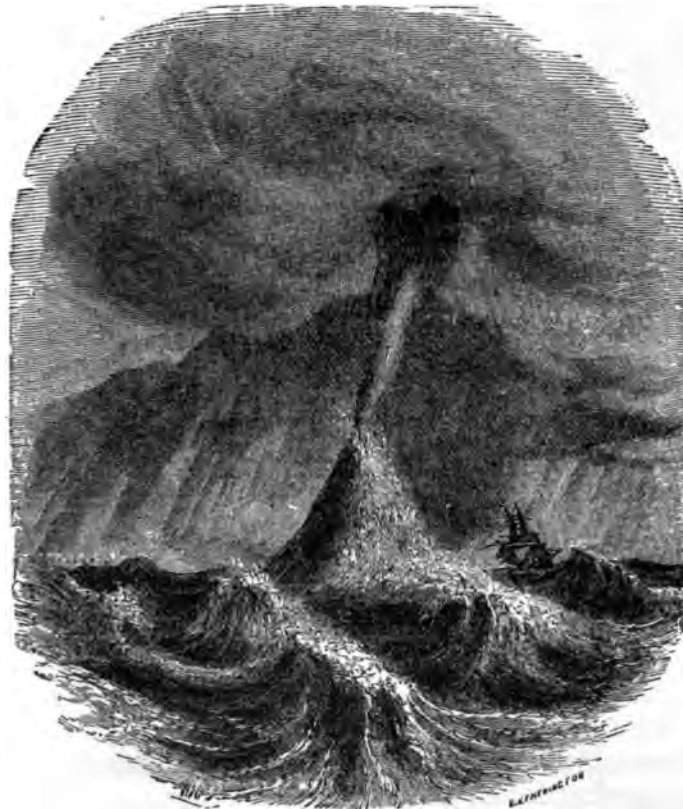
A PERFIDIOUS ACT SEVERELY PUNISHED.

But an incident now occurred which had in it the germs and portent of great mischief. On arriving at Gold River three men from Fort St. Thomas fell in with the expedition who, according to their story, had been perfidiously robbed by the natives; perfidiously, because they were under conduct of the cacique of one of the villages of the Vega, who had promised to aid them in crossing the river. Thus were they robbed by the Indians, and the cacique, instead of punishing the Indians, winked at the theft and took a part of the booty for himself.

The hot-blooded Ojeda marched immediately to the town, seized the cacique, also his

son, the prince, and one of the thieves, cutting off the ears of the latter, and sending the prisoners, bound, to the Admiral at Isabella. This summary punishment produced the wildest alarm among the Indians, and the cacique of another village interceded for the captives. But all in vain. He then followed them to Isabella and appealed to the Admiral. The latter, deeming the robbery a serious matter, was unusually severe, and condemned the thieves to be beheaded in the public place of the settlement. It appears, however, that he intended to pardon the culprits in time to save their lives.

Just at this crisis of the affair a cavalryman arrived from Fort St. Thomas, who on the way had found five Spaniards held as prisoners by the subjects of the captured cacique. He had, however, charged into the village, put the whole town to flight and rescued the prisoners. According to his report he had chased out of the town all the four hundred inhabitants, scattering them in every direction. The incident was sufficiently amusing, and also sufficiently significant of the relative ability of the natives and Spaniards in open war. When the Indian prisoners were brought to the place where they were to be beheaded and the friendly cacique Guarionex, ruler of the villages of Vega Real, continued to supplicate for their liberation, Columbus granted his petition and set the captives free. He also sent off Guarionex with many presents and evidences of good-will.



CHAPTER XI.

PURSUING THE GOLDEN IGNIS FATUUS.



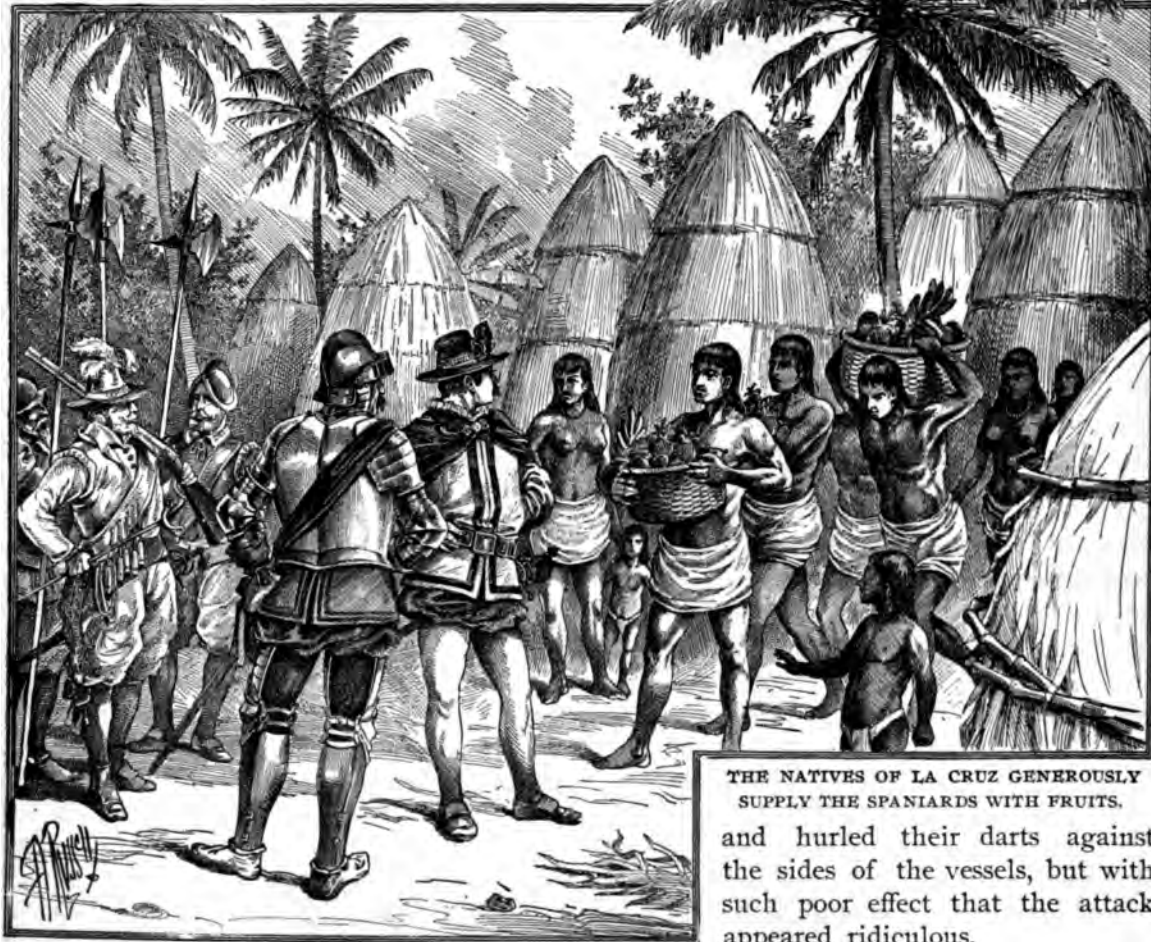
REASSURED by the peaceful condition of affairs at Isabella, before leaving that post for the mountain district of Cibao, to pursue his quest for gold, Columbus had purposed to extend his discoveries, with the hope of ultimately reaching the borders of Cathay, there to greet the great Khan in his resplendent capital of Quainsay. Upon returning, therefore, he set about preparations to continue his explorations, all the while believing that Cuba, three-fourths of which coast he had seen, was a part of the mainland adjoining the Tartar territory. For this purpose he equipped three vessels, one of which was the old *Niña*, to which the name of *Santa Clara* had been given, the *San Juan* and the

Cordera. Fort St. Thomas had been left in charge of a lieutenant named Margarite, but during his absence on a campaign in the interior, Ojeda was appointed temporarily to the command.

Feeling secure in the arrangements which he had made for the occupation of both Isabella and St. Thomas, Columbus was able to set sail upon his proposed expedition on the 24th of April. Proceeding, he made a short pause at Monte Christo, but found no natives there with whom to open communications, so he moved forward a few miles and anchored off La Natividad, where he hoped to see Guacanagari, and to obtain from him, finally, the full particulars of the massacre of the garrison under Arana. Though the replies of the messenger whom Columbus sent out to meet the cacique were favorable, the natives refused to expose themselves, and the promise of the chief to visit him was not fulfilled, and after a wait of two days Columbus sailed away without unravelling the mystery of the cacique's conduct.

Leaving La Natividad, Columbus continued along the southern coast of San Domingo until he came to the westernmost extremity of that island, where he found a beautiful harbor, in which he anchored to make some investigations on the shore. He found two considerable villages not far inland, upon entering one of which a fresh laid feast was prepared, but the natives having been alarmed upon the approach of the Spaniards, had left them to enjoy the banquet, though without invitation. Subsequently, a few of the natives were persuaded to approach the Spaniards, but beyond the giving of a few presents no intercourse was attempted. The voyage was then continued until reaching the harbor of St. Jago, in Cuba, where a landing for the day was made and brief communication was had with the natives, who repeated to Columbus the reports which he had before heard concerning the rich gold fields of Babeque. The repetition of this story was given with such embellishments and assurances that he at length decided to test

the truth of the assertions. Accordingly, on the 3d of May, the squadron again weighed anchor, left the Cuban coast and drifted into the open sea. The voyage had not extended far until the bold outlines of a large island were discovered towards the south. On approaching near the shore the country was found to be thickly populated, and upon reaching shoal water a fleet of seventy canoes, all manned by warriors who were painted and feathered after the manner of North American Indians, came out to meet the ships. Their first manifestations were those of implacable hostility as the warriors set up a great yelling, and, on coming within range shot their arrows



THE NATIVES OF LA CRUZ GENEROUSLY
SUPPLY THE SPANIARDS WITH FRUITS.

and hurled their darts against the sides of the vessels, but with such poor effect that the attack appeared ridiculous.

A FIGHT WITH THE INDIANS.

Instead of regarding the demonstration as an invitation to battle Columbus chose rather to make signs of peace and to tell the Indians, through his interpreter, that he came on a friendly mission and to present gifts to the people. This speech assuaged the anger of the natives, who permitted the ships to come to anchor near the coast of the island, which to the present day has retained its native name of Jamaica. But as no advantage could be gained by an intercourse with the people at this first landing Columbus continued his way along

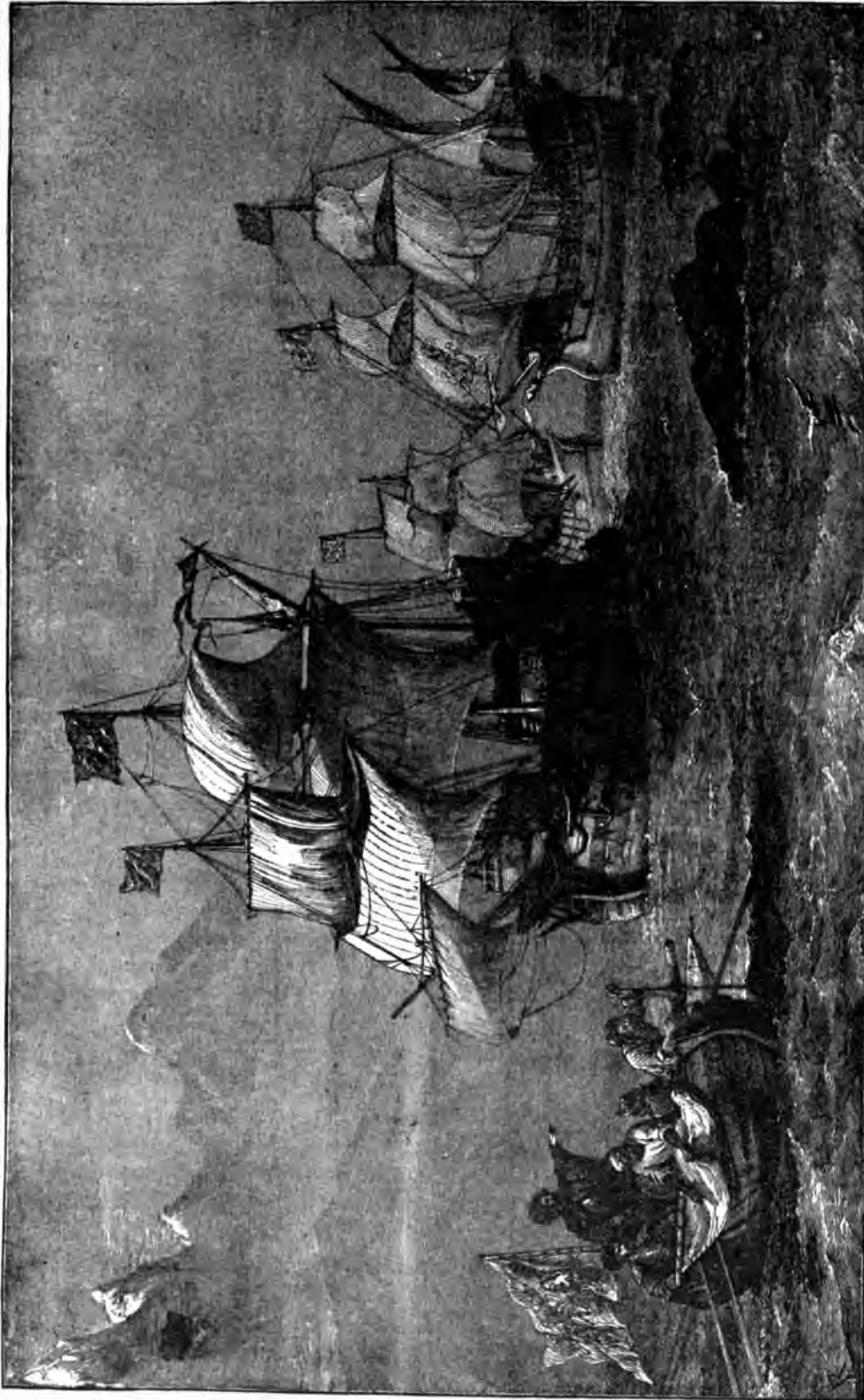
the western shore for several miles, until reaching an inviting harborage he anchored with the intention of going on shore to make some explorations. The natives at this latter place, however, exhibited the same hostility that their neighbors had manifested, and were so persistent in their determination to do the Spaniards injury that as a last resource the Admiral concluded it would be necessary to teach them a sharp lesson. To this end a boat-load of crossbowmen was sent to attack and disperse the Indians; drawing near, the Spaniards fired a volley at the enemy, wounding several; at the second discharge the natives beat a hasty retreat and on the following day sent an embassy of six warriors to treat for peace. Columbus accepted their overtures of amity, and the quiet which followed was improved by him to repair his ships, one of which was in a leaky condition. During this short stay the native Jamaicans seemed to have become convinced that the Spaniards were visitors from some far celestial country, and from their first hostile feeling there succeeded an idolatrous affection, which influenced several of the natives to beg of Columbus permission to accompany him whither he might choose to voyage. One of the caciques was so determined to join the Spaniards that some force was necessary to overcome his intention. As the fleet was about to sail a young chieftain wrested himself from the restraining grasp of his friends, and running with all possible speed to the shore sprang into a canoe and paddled off to the Admiral's ship, which he gained and hid himself in order that he might not be prevented from carrying out his purpose. Columbus received him kindly, and he perhaps lived to see the shores of Europe, with other natives of the West Indies who afterwards joined him.

Unable to find any indications of gold in Jamaica, Columbus departed for Cuba, and without further incident arrived at La Cruz, having been absent from Isabella a period of fifteen days. While lying at anchor in this latter harbor he was visited by many natives, who manifested the same friendly disposition as those whom he first met in Hispaniola, and generously supplied the expedition with fruits and such provisions as the vicinity afforded. While here Columbus also learned from some of the natives that the country was an island, but of very great extent, so large indeed that none of the people with whom he had yet come in contact knew its limits. To determine this question Columbus resolved to continue his explorations, but hardly had the voyage been renewed when fate, so long tempted, became sullen and adverse. A great tempest swept the bay and for some hours the ships were in imminent peril of being wrecked on the rocks; and when they had gained the open sea the squadron became entangled in the Cuban keys, out of which, on account of the tortuous channels and numerous sandbanks, it seemed for a while impossible to escape. The archipelago into which he had thus sailed was named by the Admiral, in honor of Isabella, The Queen's Gardens.

The storm finally abated without any serious injury having been inflicted upon the ships, and the islands through which they were sailing offered so many opportunities for interesting investigation that Columbus landed on the shores of several and was richly entertained by the curiosities of animal life which he discovered; flamingoes, cranes, and parrots of richest coloring, were numerous, thus lending animation to the incomparable beauties of the landscape.

A CURIOUS METHOD OF FISHING.

Many of the islands appeared to be without inhabitants, while others were thickly populated by amiable Indians who received Columbus and his men with the same kindness as had characterized those of San Salvador and Hispaniola. The Indians on some of the larger islands were seen to employ a fish somewhat after the manner that the mediævals used the hawk in hunting. This falcon-fish, which the Indians used with such singular results,



IN THE DANGEROUS ARCHIPELAGO OF THE QUEEN'S GARDENS.

had the power of attaching itself to objects by means of a sucker with which it was supplied. Such was the strength of the hold which the leech-like creature was able to take that the body might be pulled in two without breaking its connection with the object to which it had fixed itself. As if to favor the use to which the fish was applied by barbaric ingenuity it was furnished with a long tail, to which the natives attached a line ; this done the creature was allowed to take its own course in the water, where it had the instinct to attack several kinds of fish and marine animals. The turtle was the favorite object of the pursuit, and however great the size the fish would fix itself so firmly to the flat bottom of its prey that it could be drawn up to the boat by the fisherman, only quitting its hold after it was lifted out of the water. The fish thus used was the *remora*, which is very common in southern waters.

Columbus again gained the shores of Cuba nearly one hundred miles from La Cruz, where, upon landing, he was visited by a subject of a cacique named Mangon. Upon hearing the name of this chief Columbus immediately associated it with that of the Mangi, about whom Mandeville had written. The natives also informed him that in the kingdom immediately adjoining them there lived a people who clothed themselves in white to hide their tails, a report identical with that which Mandeville had made concerning the inhabitants of Mangi. Believing that he was now near the country upon which he had placed his largest hopes, Columbus stood westward along the unbroken coast, frequently stopping to hold intercourse with the natives. Thus proceeding across the broad Gulf of Xugua and into the White Water Sea, peculiar to that region, the Spaniards were greatly astonished and somewhat alarmed at seeing the ships moving through what appeared to be an ocean of milk.

STARTLED BY SPECTRAL FIGURES IN THE FOREST.

After making their way through another group of small islands the fleet anchored at Point Serafin, and Columbus sent a company on shore to procure wood and water. While lying here one of the Spaniards wandering some distance into the forest was startled—such was his own story—by the spirit of a being clad in a long white robe moving solemnly along like a Druid priest. Two others came in his train, also in white, followed by a considerable guard carrying lances. The white-robed priest approached as if for a conference, but the Spaniard was too much frightened to ascertain his desire, and ran back to his companions. Upon hearing this story Columbus was firm in his belief that he was very near the kingdom of Cathay, and that ere long he would find the civilized people of Asia to whom he thought these white-robed persons must belong. Two companies of soldiers were accordingly despatched to investigate the mystery. One of these came to a great plain covered with reeds and marsh-grass growing to such a height as to hide a man on horseback. The grass so impeded their progress that they were obliged to turn back without discovering the priests who had so startled the Spaniard. The other company reached a wooded country, where they found the tracks of some monstrous creature. Their imagination at once conceived the prodigious outlines of an impossible beast (which in fact was probably an alligator) in whose great jaws they would all soon perish should they seek a further exploration of the interior. Without continuing their investigations further, therefore, they returned to the coast, bringing back no other trophy of their expedition than a large cluster of wild grapes. The conclusion was accordingly reached by Columbus that the so-called spectral figures which had so alarmed the lone Spaniard were nothing more in reality than some very tall white cranes moving on the edge of a savannah.

Once again the voyage was resumed until the coast was reached some fifty miles further west, where communication was sought to be established with the people, who

came off in canoes to the ship and whose speech was unlike that of any of the natives with whom the Spaniards had come in contact. In the broken communication held through the interpreter additional hints seemed to be obtained of the proximity of the Tartar empire. Columbus understood that in the high-lands far to the west a great king resided. This king was clad in white from head to foot and was such a holy man that he would hold no communication with those of his kind, but gave his orders by means of signs. What should the Admiral think but that now, indeed, he was coming to the coast of Tartary, over whose multitudes the magnificent Prester John sat in state, surrounded with splendor and dispensing treasures to his friends? Sure enough, in their imaginations, the Spaniards perceived the blue outlines of the delectable mountains rising from the western horizon. One of the natives who had told his pleasing story was taken along to point the way to the court of the great Khan, and the ships proceeded to solve the mystery of the Eastern Empire.

DELIGHTFUL VISIONS DISPELLED BY HARSH EVENTS.

As the voyage continued, the mountains seemed to dissolve in a mist of smoke, and for many leagues the shore was a broad sunken marsh where landing was impossible. Beyond, the coast assumed its wonted aspect, and blue smoke was observed curling up hither and yon in the distance, and the shore-line of Asia was again believed to be near at hand. Indeed, so strong were the hopes and so vivid the imagination of Columbus at this time that he seemed to see the whole of the East stretched before him in a grand panorama, revealing the golden Chersonese, the Ganges, the Straits of Bab-el-mandeb, and even the Holy Land. He even contemplated a visit to Jerusalem, and a return to Spain through the Red and Mediterranean Seas; but in these golden visions the sailors had no participation; seeing the westward trend of the coast they began to offer objections to a further voyage in that direction, since they were well spent with constant exertion in keeping the ships from the reefs, which were so numerous as to be almost impossible to wholly avoid. Besides this the vessels were already in a precarious condition, from having been run several times on bars in making a passage of the Queen's Gardens. Being in a leaky condition, their sails were also torn and the cables were so strained as to be no longer trusted. Thus, notwithstanding his belief that the kingdom of the great Khan was very near at hand, Columbus was persuaded by the complaints of his men to abandon, for the present, his undertaking to reach that country.

As one of the chief objects, however, had been to solve the question of the relations of Cuba to the mainland, he decided to prepare a statement and affidavit that the country which he had now coasted was peninsular in its character, jutting out from the east rim of Asia. In pursuance of this desire Fernando Perez de Luna, Notary of the expedition, drew up such a deposition, which was signed not only by Columbus but also by all the fifty officers and men composing the expedition. Though there was thus obtained a perfect unanimity of opinion Columbus provided that severe penalties should be inflicted upon any one of the expedition who should thereafter make any denial of this statement. The punishments ranged from a fine of ten thousand maravedis, in case the offender was an officer, down to a whipping of a hundred lashes in case of a cabin boy. The place where this statement was drawn up and compared was in the Bay of Cortez, and, strange to say, a point from which less than a two days' sail to the west would have brought him to the extremity and thus proved to his satisfaction the insular character of Cuba; this done, he could hardly have failed by an easy voyage through a placid sea to reach the true shore of the Continent. But the human equation entered in. The discontent of his men, his own

preconception, cherished for more than eighteen months, that Cuba was an outlying part of Asia, once more diverted him from the possibility immediately within his grasp and turned him back from what may well seem to the blind eyes of men the true line of his strange destiny.

This place where the ships were anchored, in the Bay of Cortez, was the westernmost point ever reached by the discoverer of America. When we consider how near he came to discovering that Cuba was an island, that Florida on the north was scarcely a day's sail away, and that the Continent on the west was so near at hand, the fate seems hard by which the great mariner was projected so far to the west without being able to reach the true shore of the New World.

A CACIQUE TEACHES THE LAW OF THE GOLDEN RULE.

Having, as he believed, established for all futurity the Continental character of Cuba, regardless of what might be its true geographical configuration, on the 13th of June Columbus continued in a southeasterly course until he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Evangelista*, afterwards known as *Isle de los Pinos*, or *Island of Pines*. Here he took on a fresh supply of wood and water and then stood out to sea with the intention of circumnavigating Jamaica. But instead of finding a direct course he was intercepted by a cluster of islands, several of which were of coral formation and thus a source of the greatest peril. From these dangers he did not escape without much damage to the *Santa Clara*, which ran upon a dangerous bar and was only saved from destruction by the almost superhuman efforts of the crew.

His course having been changed by obstacles encountered, Columbus turned again towards Cuba, the coast of which he sighted on the 6th of July, and going on shore the following day he set up a cross and began a solemn celebration of Mass. While he was thus engaged some natives had watched the proceedings until one of their venerable priests, comprehending its import, came forward and addressed Columbus, first proffering him a basket of fruit as a peace-offering. The aged priest told him, through the interpreter, that he understood the ceremony which he had thus witnessed to be an act of worship; that he did not doubt the greatness and glory of the people and country whence the Spaniards were descended, but that haughtiness and pride were not becoming even in the greatest. He then explained to the Admiral that the philosophy of his religion taught him to believe that the souls of the dead have, according to merit, two destinies after leaving the body. Those who had spent their lives in wickedness were compelled to go into a horrible country where all was dark and dangerous; but the ghosts of those who in their earth-lives were good in all their actions towards mankind journeyed after death into a land of blessedness and light. This rule of division he assured the Spaniards would be applied even to themselves, however superior they might be in their civilization; and he even declared that the Admiral himself would be punished with banishment into the dismal abodes if he were not just and gracious to the people among whom he had come.

The speech of the native priest had in it an element not only of ethical soundness but of orthodoxy as well, which greatly surprised Columbus, who heartily improved the occasion to confirm the aboriginal's notions and to extend toward them the doctrine of Christianity. Columbus accordingly explained to him the practical part of his mission—that he had come to these island countries to subdue the cannibals in order that the dread of their race might be taken away; but that for the rest he was on an embassy of peace from his sovereigns, to whom he always gave the greatest praise and glory. He also described to the natives some of the leading features of the Old World civilization, especially its

splendors and mighty cities and the vast yield of its cultivated fields. The interest of the old priest was so excited by these explanations that he sought the privilege of going on board and sailing away with Columbus, and he was only restrained from this intention by his wife and children throwing themselves at his feet and beseeching him with tears not to leave them.

PLEADINGS OF A CACIQUE TO ACCOMPANY COLUMBUS.

Columbus continued on the coast of Cuba on this last visit until the 16th of July, when he resumed his voyage. But upon regaining the Queen's Gardens the squadron was assailed by a terrific storm which raged with such great fury that for two days the vessels were in the greatest danger, and reached Cabo la Cruz in an almost dismantled condition. Here it was necessary to beach the vessels for needed repairs to the bottoms, as well as to supply them with new sails, after which he resumed the voyage with intention to proceed to Jamaica and there carry into execution his plans for circumnavigating that island. In pursuance of this design Columbus left La Cruz and gained the shore of Jamaica in a sail of two days, but was for a while prevented from continuing around its coast by the interruption of another storm, which compelled him to put into a harbor of that shore, where the natives received him with great kindness. In one instance a cacique came in the manner of royalty, accompanied by his queen and her daughters and a retinue of councillors and guards, all ornamented and painted according to aboriginal custom and etiquette. Obtaining permission they came on board the *Santa Clara* and were there hospitably received and entertained by Columbus, whose kindness so affected the cacique that, though ruler of a rich government, he expressed his desire to abdicate and return with the Spaniards to the celestial country whence he supposed they had come. For many reasons Columbus could not accept this proposal, but he had to use much persuasion to induce the chief and his family to return on shore and resume their royal functions among their people.



Proceeding from one point of the island to another, as temporary abatement of the storm permitted a continuance of the voyage, on the 19th of August the circumnavigation of the island was completed, after which the Admiral steered for San Domingo, and three days thereafter came in sight of Cape San Miguel. From this point efforts were made to proceed directly to Isabella but many new islands were encountered, to which names were given and short landings made. But these presently became so numerous that the sand-bars presented serious obstacles and detained the squadron nearly two weeks before they could be extricated from the dangers which surrounded them.

COLUMBUS STRICKEN DOWN WITH A STRANGE ILLNESS.

The hardships of the voyage, though alternating at times with pleasant episodes on the shores of the various islands visited, had been extreme, and the crews were well-nigh the limits of their endurance. The Admiral himself, more than ever before, showed the effects of the great strain and sleepless anxiety to which he had been subjected. In his case exhaustion was not only of the body, but also of the mind and spirit. He could but feel, now that he was returning to his colony, that the aggregate results of his voyage fell far short, not indeed of reasonable expectation, but of that visionary and picturesque dream of which he himself had been the principal author. A rapturous vision of the Indies was entertained by Ferdinand and Isabella and by all the people of Spain; indeed, the nations of Europe

were on tiptoe to catch the first tidings of things more marvellous than had yet been related concerning the borders of the newly discovered world. Failing to realize these gorgeous anticipations, we may imagine the depressing effect produced by the disappointments which Columbus must have so keenly felt.

Whatever may have been the cause, Columbus, on leaving the island of Mona and steering for Isabella, broke down completely and yielded to some form of malady which physical science may well be puzzled to understand. He became drowsy, and his senses, one by one, were covered with an oblivious veil through which no thought, no perception of external things, could penetrate. He fell into a sort of coma almost as deep as death; indeed, it was believed by the officers and men, including Dr. Chanca, that the hour of the Admiral had come. They accordingly set all sail and, catching a favoring trade wind, bore off directly for the harbor of Isabella, where on the 29th of September, 1494, they arrived, bringing back Columbus, who, though still living, was wholly insensible.

The joy felt by those who had remained faithful to the government of Diego was very great when they saw the squadron of three vessels making into the bay, but the jubilation was quickly chilled when the knowledge of the Admiral's condition became known.

We may here observe that it was nearly five months from the time that he was stricken down before Columbus recovered his health, and even at the expiration of that long period of debility his powers were not fully restored. Indeed, advancing age prevented rejuvenation and he was never himself again. His restoration was due in the largest measure to the unfaltering care of Father Juan Perez, who, having shared with the Admiral all the disappointments and hardships of the recent voyage, could not be persuaded to leave him at any time throughout the long period of his severe illness, but watched unremittingly beside the couch of his sick friend, speaking words of encouragement and ministering in every possible way to his needs.

MEETING BETWEEN COLUMBUS AND HIS BROTHER—A STORY OF ADVENTURE.

When Columbus opened his eyes to consciousness, after many days of insensibility, he found his brother Bartholomew standing by his side. His surprise was not only inexpressible but for a while he believed himself dreaming and that his mind was still held fast in the shackles of the disease that had stricken him down; and well it might be so, for long had it been since he had seen the face of his faithful and resolute brother. How, then, and why had Bartholomew Columbus come so far to receive and minister to his half-dead brother? The story is long and full of interest, but we may not here pause to enter fully into the episodes and details of the extended adventures which had kept Bartholomew at the courts of Europe. The reader will readily recall the situation of affairs at the time when Columbus' mule was turned about on the bridge of Pinos on the evening of the last day of his appeal for the patronage of Ferdinand and Isabella. Believing that his cause was ended in Spain, Columbus had despatched Bartholomew to the court of Henry VII., of England, to propose to that monarch the project of discovery. Tradition tells us, for the facts may not be obtained from any authenticated history, that the vessel in which he sailed was run down by pirates, who, after despoiling the ship of all its valuables, left the crew on some shore which is not named in the story. Bartholomew, robbed of his resources, was for a long time harassed by pressing want, his poverty being the greater because of his ignorance of the language of the people among whom he was thus harshly thrown. It was, therefore, several years before he succeeded in reaching England, and having at last arrived at that country he was compelled to spend two years more in acquiring the English language, learning the usages of the people, and in otherwise preparing himself to properly appear at

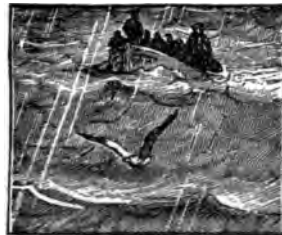
the court of that nation. It was not until the middle of 1493, it is said, that he obtained an audience with the king, to whom he first presented a painted atlas, and then followed his request for aid to Christopher's enterprise with such convincing reasoning that the monarch not only welcomed the proposal, but signified his desire to enter as quickly as possible upon the preliminaries of a contract, acceding to the demands made in the stipulations which Christopher had presented to the King of Portugal.

Rejoicing at the success of his mission to England, Bartholomew departed in great haste to seek his brother. While passing through Paris on his way back to Spain he was first informed of the discovery of the New World and of the triumphal reception of the great discoverer by the Majesties of Spain and Portugal. Immediately Charles VIII. heard of Bartholomew's presence in Paris he sent for him, and not only welcomed him as the brother of the most distinguished explorer of the world's history, but, finding him in need of money, induced Bartholomew to accept a hundred gold crowns to defray the expenses of his return to Spain.

A SAD DISAPPOINTMENT TO BARTHOLOMEW.

Not considering that it was now important to hasten his journey Bartholomew remained a while in France, and when he reached Seville it was to learn that Christopher had departed on his second voyage. Greatly disappointed at being thus prevented from accompanying him Bartholomew visited Dona Beatrix, at Cordova, and then took his nephews Diego and Fernando, who were studying there, to Valladolid and presented them at Court, where they were tenderly received and retained for a considerable while.

Ferdinand and Isabella were both much impressed by the chivalric bearing of Bartholomew, as well as by his knowledge of many languages, including Latin, Portuguese, Spanish, Danish, and English, and for his great skill as a navigator. To show her appreciation of his several conspicuous attainments and merits the Queen granted him letters of nobility and the command of three ships, which she ordered him to load with provisions and take to the colony in Hispaniola. When he arrived at Isabella, however, he found that the Admiral had started upon his second exploration of Cuba, and, he was therefore compelled to endure the anxiety of five months' further separation before circumstances permitted him to greet at last the distinguished brother whom he had not seen for more than eight long and eventful years.



CHAPTER XII.

FIRST SUBJUGATION OF THE INDIANS.



VER the whole island of Hispaniola there brooded the spirit of disquiet, which only needed the Admiral's absence to bring forth insubordination and riotous spoliation. Following his departure the succeeding events may be thus briefly traced: As for the local affairs at Isabella the administration had been conducted with tolerable success and conformably with the Admiral's instructions. It was only as the colony had been embroiled by the conduct of Margarite, leader of the military expedition in the interior, that confusion, clamor, and injustice had arisen among the colonists of the coast. It should be said once for all that Don Diego Columbus, whom the Admiral had left in authority, was a man of mild manners and moderate characteristics such as unsuited him to a considerable degree for the responsibilities and duties of this rough frontier government. But doubtless he would have succeeded better had he not been from the first impeded and treated with contempt by the military commandant and his followers.

It will be remembered that by the Admiral's order Ojeda was assigned to the command of Fort St. Thomas and the leadership of the exploring expedition to Margarite. The latter was strictly enjoined to explore the mountain region and if possible discover the sources of gold. He was also to traverse as far as possible the five provinces of the island and prepare himself by actual observation and experience to report on the products and resources of every district visited. But astonishing to relate, this reckless and obstinate commander, as soon as he knew that the Admiral had gone forth on his voyage of discovery, discarded his instructions and entered upon a career of insubordination and wickedness so flagrant as to brand him with the contempt, if not the hatred, of after time.

Instead of going forward to explore the gold-bearing mountains of Cibao—instead even of marching northward through the countries of unvisited and unknown caciques—Margarite turned about from Fort St. Thomas, marched back into the populous and fertile regions of the Vega Real, and quartered himself and his men among the native villages. Here he began at once a course of inaction, licentiousness and outrage so brutal and vile as to defy narration. They began their abuse of the natives by violently appropriating whatever pleased them, paying nothing for their provisions, taking what they would, and wastefully destroying the residue.

It was not long until the supplies in the villages ran low and the natives found themselves without food. At the same time the Spaniards began to take all the gold which the Indians had gathered, with no pains to recompense them even with trinkets. The next step was to compel the natives to gather more of the shining dust for their masters. The latter assumed the manner of slave-drivers and abused the timid people of the towns as though

they were dogs and cattle. From seeking wives respectfully, the Spaniards began to claim the native women and to take them without regard to the rights or rank of the fathers, husbands and brothers. The women of the villages were in the power of the stranger, and mere lust ran riot until the barbaric nature of the islanders, however meek and subservient, could bear it no longer.

REBELLION OF MARGARITE AND BUYL.

While this reign of shame and wickedness prevailed in the villages of the Vega, under



MARGARITE AND VICAR BUYL, REBEL AGAINST DON DIEGO.

the example and leadership of Margarite, the evil extended along social and political lines to the colony at Isabella. In general the Hidalgo element among the Spaniards fell into sympathy with Margarite. When the news of the proceedings of the latter were carried to Don Diego he immediately laid the matter before his council, and the result was a letter of

rebuke to the offending officer and his command. He was reminded of the instructions which had been given him by the Admiral, and directed, in compliance therewith, to break off from his corrupt life in the Vega and prosecute the expedition of discovery. Instead, however, of accepting this authoritative paper and obeying it, Margarite broke into open rebellion. He renounced Diego Columbus and the council, declaring himself independent, and affecting contempt for the parvenu Columbuses, who, through the vicissitudes of fortune, had gained a rank under which they thought to lord it over men having in their blood noble currents of ancient Spain.

In this contumacy the captain was supported by the reckless young nobles of the colony, whom, as the reader will remember, the Admiral himself had found so much difficulty in controlling. The general result was the establishment of an aristocratical faction in the island, embracing the Hidalgos and all the Adullamites of the colony. The name of these was legion, and legitimate authority was soon paralyzed in their presence.

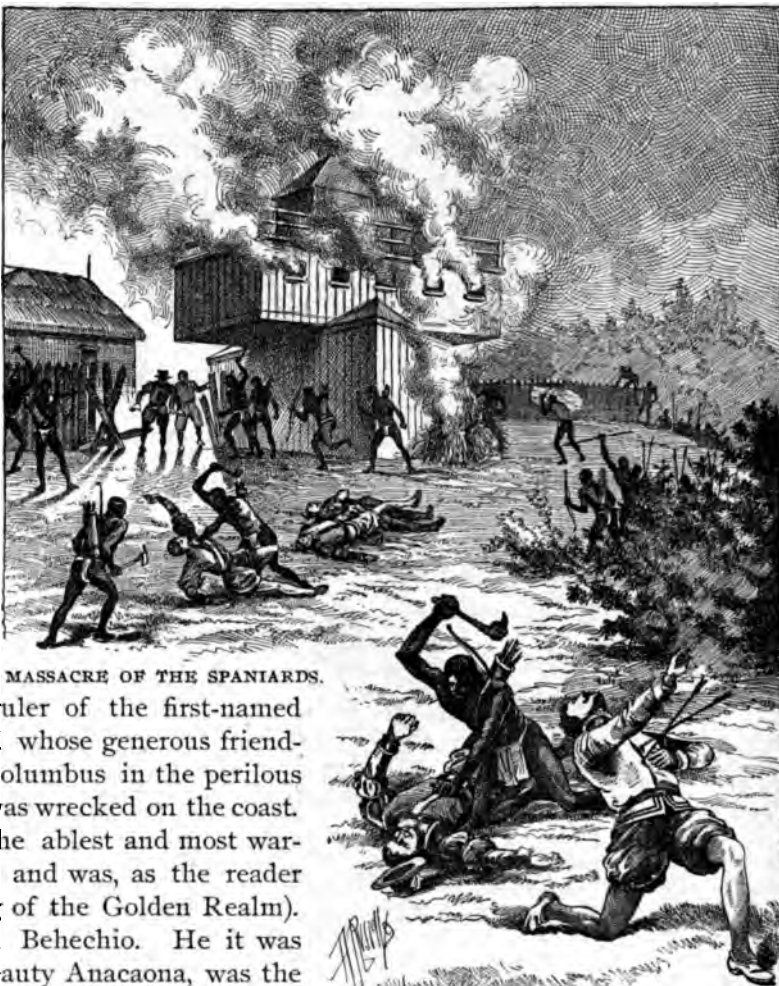
Perhaps after all Diego and the council might have been able to maintain order if it had not been for the defection of the Vicar Buyl and his subordinate ecclesiastics. Those priests, including Father Perez, who were faithful to the Admiral first and last, had generally accompanied him on his voyages, while the Buyl faction remained in the island and had gone over in a body to the malcontents. In such a state of affairs sedition was the natural, perhaps the inevitable, result. When Bartholomew Columbus arrived disorder was king. Nor had he any other than moral force with which to support his brother in the government. On the other hand Margarite felt himself strong. He had the backing of the nobility and the priesthood. Besides, both he and Buyl believed with good reason that they stood well with Ferdinand, and that the Admiral was not, and never had been, in great favor with the monarch.

Thus fortified by the circumstances, Margarite and the vicar made a conspiracy to seize the three ships constituting the fleet of Bartholomew Columbus and to sail back to Spain, where the whole cave of Adullam might discharge itself in the royal court. The enterprise gathered head, and this time was successful. The mutineers seized the vessels, and under the lead of Margarite and the Vicar Buyl sailed away for the mother country. Nor was there any power to prevent them from doing so. Among the many squadrons bearing from port to port of our poor world their cargoes of lies, this seditious fleet, commanded by a brigand and a priest, was conspicuous for carrying the heaviest load.

A BLOODY RETRIBUTION VISITED ON THE SPANIARDS.

All this was done long before the return of the Admiral. As for the army, whether in the Vega Real or straggling back to Isabella, it had no longer a commander and quickly fell to pieces of neglect and insubordination. The soldiers broke into bands and ranged at will among the Indian towns, taking the same course of vice, outrage and depravity which they had pursued with the consent and by the example of Margarite. The natives, driven to desperation, at length rose against the wretched criminals who had violated every principle of honor and decency, and the Spaniards soon began to feel the sting of retributive justice. In one case ten of the straggling soldiers were taken by Chief Guarionex and put to death without much regard to form. He next succeeded in throwing a large force of his warriors around the fortress, where another band numbering forty-six had taken possession, and the houses were fired. Almost all of the Spaniards perished, either in the flames or by the darts of the enemy. In the next place the garrison of a little block-house called Magdalena was cooped up in a siege and was unable to extricate itself until reinforcements were sent out from Isabella.

The situation was sufficiently alarming. As soon as the Admiral's health was in a measure restored he applied himself with diligence to the restoration of order. Matters had now gone so far, however, that mere personal kindness could not avail, and diplomacy had to give place to war. The greater part of all the islanders had become positively hostile. There were, as we have said, in Hispaniola five provinces or principal caciquedoms. The first and most northerly of these was called *Marien* in the native tongue, and was ruled over by Guacanagari. The second was called *Maguana*, lying on the southern coast between the lagoons and the river Ozema. The third was the great central province of *Xaragua*, lying over to the south-west and having for its most conspicuous physical feature the great headland called Cape Tiburon. The fourth division was called *Higuey*, and occupied the eastern extremity of the island as far north as Samana Bay and the River Yuna. The fifth and most important of all included the great, fertile and populous plain of the *Vega Real*.



MASSACRE OF THE SPANIARDS.

As we have said, the ruler of the first-named district was that Guacanagari whose generous friendship had been extended to Columbus in the perilous day when the *Santa Maria* was wrecked on the coast. The second cacique, by far the ablest and most warlike, was of Carib extraction and was, as the reader knows, called Caonabo (King of the Golden Realm). The third ruler was named Behechio. He it was whose sister, the peerless beauty Anacaona, was the wife of King Caonabo. The cacique of Higuey was named Cotubanama, whose subjects had many Carib elements in their disposition, but who was not himself of a warlike character. The cacique of the Vega Real region was, as we have seen, that Guarionex with whom for about six months the Spaniards had been in close relations.

BEGINNING OF HOSTILITIES.

Of these five caciques four were now hostile to the Spaniards, and possibly Guacanagari might himself have been added to the league but for the fact that the others, suspecting his unchangeable friendship for the foreigners, had attacked him in his own village, and besides massacring several of his people had killed the beautiful Catalina, who, it will be remembered, escaped from Columbus' vessel and fled into the forest, where she was directly

afterwards followed by the chief who made her his wife. This violent outrage confirmed the friendly feelings which he had before entertained for the Spaniards, and to their fortunes he now attached himself more firmly than ever. Immediately upon the Admiral's return Guacanagari opened communication with him and supplied valuable information respecting the movements that were going on in the island, and otherwise manifested his deep concern for the welfare of his visitors, so that he completely dispelled all suspicions which Columbus had formerly entertained.

The population of Hispaniola at this time was variously estimated at from five hundred thousand to a million, a number sufficiently great to more than compensate for the poor weapons with which they had to make the attack. They were naked as to their bodies, having no defensive armor, while their weapons extended no further than a hardened shaft of wood pointed with bone, which served the purpose of a lance, and in the matter of discipline they were barbarians. But they were very courageous, and having great confidence in the superiority of numbers, they made bold to attack the Spaniards even in their defenses. In going to battle the natives advanced in a disorganized body, every warrior being allowed to direct his own attack from such covert as he might find.

Though something was to be feared from the mere pressure of numbers, the Spaniards might in other respects smile at the puny rage of these naked men of the forest as they howled from the thickets and discharged their harmless darts. Caonabo was, by general consent, com-



CAONABO AT THE HEAD OF HIS ARMY.

mandant of the native force, and besides being at the head of the most powerful tribe on the island, he possessed many special qualities, chief of which were courage and sagacity, and with effective weapons he would have been a formidable antagonist. He had not failed to note the dissipated and wretched bands of Margarite's army, which had been destroyed or expelled by the inhabitants of the towns on his borders, and he now naturally directed his attention to Fort St. Thomas, which he knew to be poorly defended, and determined to assault and destroy that place, as he had done La Natividad. At the head of ten thousand men he advanced cautiously to the vicinity of the fort, expecting to surprise the garrison and overwhelm them before they were able to make preparations to receive him. But in this he was fatally deceived. The command of the fort had been entrusted to Ojeda, who was not likely to be caught off his guard, for of all men among the Spaniards he was the most alert, intrepid and active. Discovering before he made his attack that the garrison was ready to receive him, Caonabo changed his tactics, and instead of attempting to carry it by assault contented himself with surrounding the fort with the hope of compelling it to yield through famine.

A BRAVE MAN'S SELF-DENIAL.

This siege continued for a month, and brought the Spaniards to such great distress that they were compelled to resort to every expedient in order to obtain supplies. Occasional sorties were made by Ojeda, by which a few provisions were procured, but the main dependence of the garrison was in the assistance brought to them by friendly Indians, who managed on many occasions to smuggle in small supplies of food. A characteristic anecdote is preserved of the coming in of one of the friendly Indians with two wood-pigeons for Ojeda. When they were given to him some of the officers looked wistfully at the birds as though they would devour them alive. Thereupon Ojeda took the pigeons to a window and tossing them forth into the air, said, "It's a pity there isn't enough for all of us." It is plain that such a character as this would not easily succumb to any of the harsh conditions which the siege might impose. This long delay also affected the hostile Indians, who, observing how futile had been the results of the siege, began to desert, until at the expiration of a month Caonabo's forces were so much reduced in numbers that he decided to retire from the country. But his ill success in the long effort to destroy the Spaniards at Fort St. Thomas abated none of his determination to visit a sufficient punishment upon his aggressors, and accordingly Caonabo retired into the country and for a season used all his efforts in centralizing the power of the several chiefs, whose consent he at length obtained to make a demonstration against the colony at Isabella. A league having thus been formed, Caonabo made an examination of the surroundings of Isabella, and found that an attack on that place might be made with every promise of success. The garrison was small and the fort was nothing like so strong as that at Fort St. Thomas, besides Caonabo had every reason to believe that the commandant possessed little of the skill and bravery of Ojeda. But the expectations of Caonabo were yet a long ways from realization. He found directly that even the promises of the chiefs themselves might not be implicitly relied on, while Guacanagari was a constant menace to the success of his plans. Columbus was duly apprised of the intentions of the natives, and adopted the most energetic measures to repel and break up the Indian confederacy. His first step was to make sure of the condition of his three forts in the Vega Real, after which, through some influential Indians, he succeeded in opening communications with Guarionex, who had joined the league with some misgivings. While not succeeding in securing his assistance, he obtained a promise that in case of hostilities he would maintain a neutral attitude. But Columbus was not content with the bare promise of the chief, and in order to bind him to a performance of his agreement Columbus sought the daughter of the cacique and gave her in marriage to his interpreter, Diego, the Guanahanian. He also obtained the consent of the chief to build a fortress in his territory, to which the name of Fort Conception was given. This gave the Spaniards an advantage which they were not slow to appreciate.

A HAZARDOUS ENTERPRISE.

By this time Columbus had come to believe that a great part of the strength of the confederation lay in Caonabo himself, and it was evident that that great chieftain furnished the energy, the spirit and the warlike skill of the whole movement. It therefore seemed essential that by some means, fair or foul, Caonabo should be captured. This, however, was no easy task, whether by force or by stratagem. Yet the situation was precisely of the kind to evoke the adventurous spirit and genius of Ojeda. That captain, after considering the nature of the thing to be done, volunteered to kidnap Caonabo and to bring him a prisoner to the Admiral. From the very nature of things such an enterprise was more easily conceived than accomplished. But Ojeda was equal to the emergency, and with a small company of horsemen he sallied forth into the territories of Caonabo, bent upon his

desperate enterprise. In the meantime, by some means which history has not made sufficiently plain, Ojeda had succeeded in establishing some friendly relations with Caonabo, whose admiration might possibly have been excited by the resolute resistance with which that brave Spaniard had met the attack of the overwhelming force of natives at Fort St. Thomas.

At all events, it is declared that Ojeda went into the territory of Caonabo under the cover of friendship, and upon his approaching in the character of an ambassador he was readily permitted to enter the chief's village. Ojeda had formed his plans with his usual skill in warfare, his idea being to gain the chieftain's confidence and then to allure him by some specious promises to Isabella, where he might be seized and confined. He first tried the stratagem of the bell. The Spaniards of the colony had erected a small chapel and placed a bell in the steeple, which as good Catholics they were constantly ringing. The music of this resonant monitor rang out on the morning air and fell on the astonished ears of the natives. In answer to their expressions of surprise they were told that the bell was calling the people to prayers. So the myth was scattered abroad that the metallic voice in the steeple was a living thing—a spirit that could cry out and summon the Spaniards to worship. Great, therefore, was the fame of this bell, a delusion which Ojeda encouraged by adding many embellishments, until the interest of the natives was thoroughly aroused. And he finally told Caonabo that if he would repair to Isabella and make a treaty of friendship with the Admiral he should have the marvellous bell as a present for himself. His desire was so great to possess this wondrous relic that Caonabo took the bait, though warily. He made his preparations to visit the Spanish colony, but called a large body of his best warriors to go with him. When Ojeda protested that this was not necessary the cacique replied that it would be unbecoming in him as a king to go about the country without the company of a royal guard.

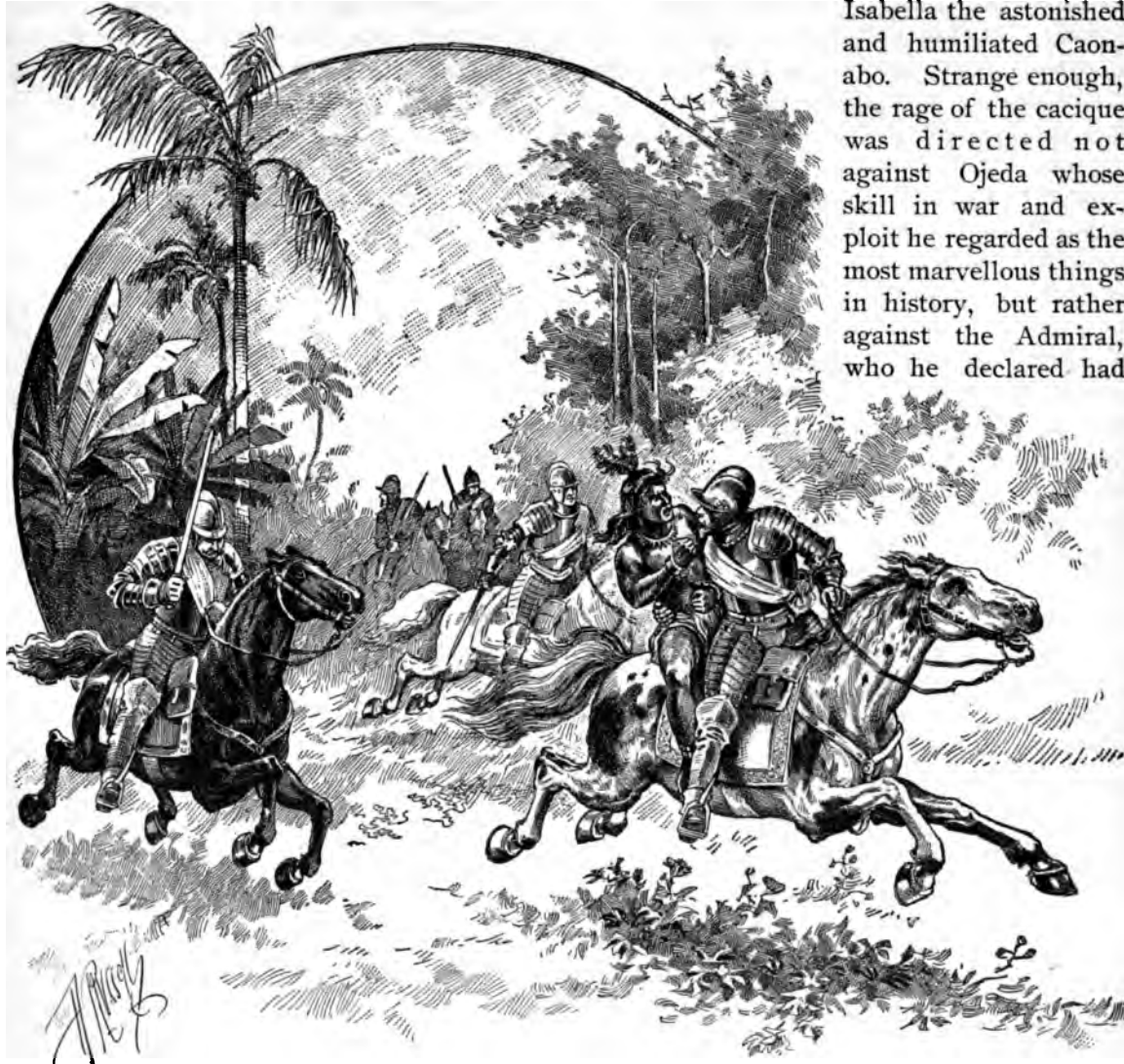
A STRATAGEM WHICH LED TO THE CAPTURE OF CAONABO.

Perceiving what might be the result of an attempt to seize Caonabo when surrounded by a large body of native soldiery, Ojeda abandoned this first scheme and adopted another equally bold expedient. Believing that he might have need of such instruments, Ojeda had taken with him into the Indian country some manacles, or handcuffs, which the Spaniards humorously called *espousas*, or “wives.” This significant apparatus was made of brass and steel, polished to perfect brightness. These Ojeda displayed one day to Caonabo, and when the cacique inquired about them he was informed that they were a kind of ornament which, in the country across the ocean, were worn only by kings and queens. Such jewelry, he was told, the monarchs of Castile always wore when they went to bathe, or to dance, or to preside at festivals. Having thus excited both his interest and desire, he finally told Caonabo that as a token of honor he himself might wear them when they went to the river for his bath; that the cacique should play Spanish king, and he, Ojeda, would show him how it was done. In such a proposition Caonabo could discover no ground of suspicion. He accordingly accepted the invitation and the manacles were adjusted to his wrists. When the bath was finished, Ojeda courteously assisting, the cacique was told that the Spanish king on such occasions always mounted behind one of his courtiers after the bath and thus rode triumphantly back to his palace; but it was the custom of Spain that the courtier should direct his horse in circles, like the flight of a bird. To all these things consenting, the cacique was mounted behind Ojeda on the back of a very fine and fleet horse, and putting spurs to the animal they began to circle round and round, Ojeda at the same time giving the signal to the Spaniards who had accompanied him to mount. He

made the circles larger and larger, for that was no doubt the way the king of Castile did on such occasions! At length, however, when the curve of the comedy swung out near the edge of the woods, the tangential force became too great for Ojeda, and putting spurs to his horse he struck away with his prisoner at full gallop into the forest.

The Spanish troop continued its flight through villages, fighting and charging, swam rivers, plunged through thickets, and by this fierce riding brought back in triumph to

Isabella the astonished and humiliated Caonabo. Strange enough, the rage of the cacique was directed not against Ojeda whose skill in war and exploit he regarded as the most marvellous things in history, but rather against the Admiral, who he declared had



A DESPERATE ADVENTURE.

acted in the most cowardly manner by keeping himself within his borders while his brave captain had gone forth and by adroitness had made prisoner a king.

A BATTLE AND REPULSE OF THE NATIVES.

Caonabo was placed in confinement in a room of the Admiral's own house and was treated for the time with the distinction and courtesy usually accorded to royal prisoners. But notwithstanding this considerate treatment and the fact that the head of the confederacy was now in confinement, the duplicity by which he was taken aroused the subjects of

Caonabo to still greater hostility. During his captivity a league of the three principal caciques was consolidated under a brother of the captive king who had now become cacique in his stead. War alarms began to be sounded in nearly all parts of the island, and in an incredibly short time an army of seven thousand Indians advanced against Fort St. Thomas. But Ojeda, learning of the movement and anticipating the prospects of another siege, increased his force by a detachment sent to him by Bartholomew Columbus, who had received an appointment as Lieutenant-Governor, and boldly marched forth to give them battle. By forced marches he came upon the Indians when they were least expecting his presence, and fell upon them with such fury that the natives were quickly routed and driven in all directions before the charge of the cavalry.

In the meantime affairs at Isabella had greatly improved by the arrival of four caravels under the command of Antonio de Torres, bringing a good supply of provisions, medicines, clothing and merchandise, and also several artisans very needful in the present condition of the colony. As for the Admiral he was particularly delighted by the receipt of a package of documents from their Majesties, in which among other things were some letters filled with expressions of regard and high compliment. His whole course of management was heartily approved, and the pleasing intelligence was conveyed that all serious difficulties with the Crown of Portugal, which were pending at the time of Columbus' last departure, had been adjusted, with a compromise involving a new line of division. To determine the true place of the line the sovereigns thought it expedient that Columbus should return to Europe, bringing his charts with him; but in case he could not conveniently leave the colony he was instructed to send some one in his stead. In compliance with this request of the King and Queen, the Admiral, who could not leave the colony in its present condition, commissioned Diego Columbus to return to Spain and aid their Majesties in the settlement of their business with the Portuguese Court.

Other things more important than the matters referred to in their Majesties' communication concerned Columbus and made it very important that he should despatch a representative to the Spanish Court to counteract the influence of Margarite and Buyl, who were now making their way across the Atlantic to falsely represent the Admiral's administration in the Indies. Columbus knew well that as soon as these unscrupulous but able messengers of mischief should reach the Spanish Court they would exert themselves to the utmost to destroy his place in the affections and confidence of the sovereigns. He therefore determined to follow up the emissaries of evil with an embassy in his own interests.

THE FIRST SHIP-LOAD OF SLAVES.

Ships were at once prepared for a home-bound voyage, and the *Eagle* was despatched not only as the bearer of the charts requested, but with the Admiral's representative in the affairs which now so deeply concerned him. Columbus took pains to send home a large contribution of gold, as great as he could procure, and other metals were added as an evidence of the mineral wealth of Hispaniola. The viceroy was also able to supply many new specimens of plants and animals, some of which were of value and all of interest. Finally he ordered forth and sent on board the ships nearly five hundred Indian captives, to be sold as slaves in the markets of Spain. Doubtless he thought by this means, even against the recent admonition of the sovereigns to "find some other way," to add so much to the Spanish treasury that the inhumanity of the enterprise would be overshadowed by the profit. It may be said, in extenuation of this act, that slavery and the slave trade were the every-day and well-approved vices of all Christian states, and that only a few loftier

minds had in those ages of cruelty and gloom perceived the atrocity and horror of the system.

After the departure of his fleet Columbus was left to consider and solve the local complications of his government. It directly appeared that the decisive defeat of the natives by Ojeda had by no means ended their hostility. Caonabo had several brothers, all of whom became more active than ever in exciting the Indians and forming confederations. A powerful influence was also exerted by Anacaona, the favorite wife of the captive king, who freely circulated among the tribes, like Boadicea among the Britons, encouraging the caciques to renew the war. So successful were her efforts, joined with those of the cacique's brothers, that all the native princes except Guacanagari and Guarionex were brought into a league by which an army estimated at a hundred thousand men was collected for a final struggle with the Spaniards. This large force was under the command of Manicaotex, one of the brothers of Caonabo, a warlike and able general who had some skill in arranging and controlling the warriors in battle. This vast force had already gathered and set out for the southern part of the island to attack Isabella when information of the impending avalanche was brought to Columbus by Guacanagari. The Admiral, though his bodily powers were not yet fully restored, immediately prepared for the onset. He was able to bring into the field only two hundred crossbowmen and arquebusiers and twenty cavalymen, but as allies he had in his service a great number of the men of Guacanagari, though in such an emergency reliance could be placed only on the mailed, heavily-armed and well-disciplined soldiers. Another element of strength, or rather of ferocity and terror, was added to the equipment, in the way of twenty bloodhounds, whose malign instincts made them as desperate in fight as so many enraged tigers.

Columbus himself took the field, with his brother Bartholomew as his chief commander. Both had skill and courage in war, and though the enemy was a host and the Spaniards but a handful, the commanders little doubted the result of the conflict. Says Irving:

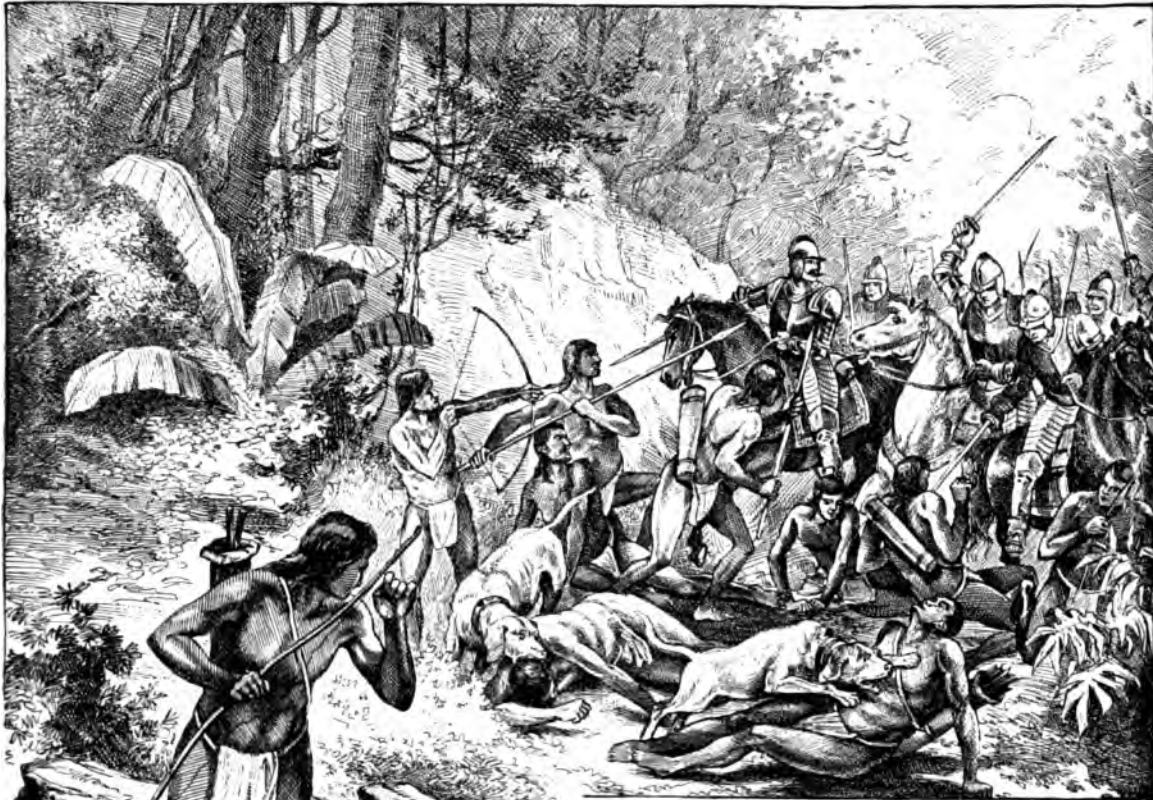
"The whole sound and effective force that he could muster, however, in the present infirm state of the colony did not exceed two hundred infantry and twenty horse. They were armed with cross-bows, swords, lances, and espingardas, or heavy arquebuses, which in those days were used with rests and sometimes mounted on wheels. With these formidable weapons a handful of European warriors cased in steel and covered with bucklers were able to cope with thousands of naked savages. They had aid of another kind, however, consisting of twenty bloodhounds, animals scarcely less terrible to the Indians than the horses and infinitely more fatal. They were fearless and ferocious; nothing daunted them, nor when they had once seized upon their prey could anything compel them to relinquish their hold. The naked bodies of the Indians offered no defence against their attacks. They sprang on them, dragged them to the earth and tore them to pieces."

A FURIOUS CHARGE OF SPANISH CAVALRY.

Advancing from Isabella the small army made its way to the mountain region over which lay the Pass of the Hidalgos. The Indian forces advanced from the southwest across the Vega, while the Spaniards came down from the opposite side to the plain. The battlefield was near the present site of the town of St. Jago. Here, on the 29th of March, 1495, the opposing armies came in sight of each other and prepared for the conflict. Small as were his forces, Columbus divided his army into several detachments of thirty or forty men, so as to extend as much as he could his lines from right to left. It was by far the most serious situation which had yet appeared in the relations of the two races in the New World.

The Spaniards, without waiting to be attacked, sounded their trumpets, beat their

drums, discharged their murderous arquebuses, and rushed forward to the attack. It was impossible that the warriors, however numerous, could withstand the assault wherever it fell. Ojeda's troop of cavalry galloped at full speed with drawn swords among the thickest aggregations of the enemy, and cut them down as a mower might lay the grass. To all this havoc was added the terrible work of the bloodhounds, which rushed upon the Indians



TERRIBLE SLAUGHTER OF THE NATIVES.

and tore them to pieces. The spectacle was appalling. For a short time along the front line there was nothing but butchery, and there was more likelihood that the Spaniards would be exhausted from the over-exertion of killing than that they would receive injury from the barbarians. Of course such work could not long be borne.

The Indians gave way before the assault and fled in all directions. Terror supervened, and the wretched creatures, panic-stricken before the charging cavalry, the raging bloodhounds and the thundering arquebuses, taking themselves to flight, hid in the woods and thickets or climbed into trees and rocky places of the cliffs, from which they immediately began to set up piteous cries and make signs of submission. Before nightfall the work was done. The confederacy was utterly broken up. Nor was it likely that any great concerted effort would any more be made to exterminate the terrible foreigners who had got their relentless grip on the island. It only remained for

Columbus to dictate what terms he would to the conquered tribes and make the most of his victory.

For a while after the battle the Admiral remained in the field, marching from place to place through a wide range of territory, visiting the towns and receiving the submission of the caciques. The expedition was *in terrorem*. Ojeda with his company of cavalry dashed hither and yon through the provinces, and all opposition quailed before him. Guarionex was the first to make peace. Soon Manicaotex was humbled and brought to submission. As for Behechio and Anacaona, their place was in the long peninsula which reaches out, like the left arm of a cray-fish, from the southwest shoulder of the island. The situation was the most inaccessible of all, and this cacique and his warlike sister were correspondingly haughty and unsubdued.

For a time a measure of independence was retained by the natives of this part of the island ; but in all other parts the conquest was complete and final. Guacanagari had already accepted for himself and his people the position of vassals under the viceroy's government. It only remained for the latter to assess upon the conquered the damages of war ; and this he proceeded to do in a manner that might well give a hint of the terrible exactions and tyrannies and cruel grindings to which the native races of Spanish America were soon to be subjected by their conquerors.



CHAPTER XIII.

ENSLAVEMENT OF THE NATIVES TO GRATIFY SPANISH GREED.



SORDID ambition, greed, unappeasable avarice constituted the ruling passions of the Spaniards, to which other unholy aspirations were added as the outgrowths of opportunity. It is an easy and natural descent for the covetous, from whom are removed the restraints that keep in curb the basest natures of man, to become the voluptuary, and under the license which savage life affords, it is not surprising that even the hidalgos, born in luxury, should fall into excesses from which, under better influences, they would have recoiled. Columbus has not been accused of succumbing to these evil temptations, but though he may have been at times inspired by pious emotions, and was sincere in his desire to extend Christianity among the islanders, it is a lamentable fact that the avarice in his nature predominated to such an extent as to blunt his sense of justice and place him on an equality with the greed-besotted subjects who shared his fortunes.

The one centralizing ambition of all who had any part in the expeditions was to acquire gold. If Columbus entertained aspirations different from all others associated in his enterprise, it was because he had not been tainted by contact with the rich before conceiving his grand project. But the most truly pious cannot remain long insensible to the effects of aggrandizement, and the most humble nature is not proof against the pride that rises with its own exaltation. The motives of Ferdinand and Isabella became by the most natural corollary the motives of Columbus, not only to gratify the sovereign will, whose favors it was policy to court, but to satisfy a longing created by his own environment. And thus it was that his own heart beat responsive to the one supreme desire that craved gold, gold, gold!

Under existing circumstances it was positively necessary for Columbus to satisfy the prevailing passion of the Spanish sovereigns as well as his own, or to acknowledge the failure of his enterprise, which had already been strongly denounced by his enemies, Margarite and De Buyl, who had gone before to make evil report of the results of his discoveries in the New World. It was in the light of these circumstances that he must now proceed to organize wealth, in the form of gold if possible, in the form of slaves if he must; for such was the only argument with which the flood of detraction and calumny could be effectually checked at its fountain.

TERRIBLE EXACTIONS PUT UPON THE NATIVES.

For a considerable while Columbus revolved in his mind the most effective means for procuring such supplies of gold as might satisfy the avarice of Ferdinand and Isabella, as well as his own ambition. The resolution at length came of subordinating the natives of

the island to the work of collecting and delivering the precious metal. The measure adopted by Columbus was sweeping, universal and severe. It contemplated no less than a tribute laid upon all the youth and adult natives of the island, the limit of age being fixed at fourteen years. Under this edict every native was required, under heavy penalty, to deliver to the Admiral, at the expiration of every three months, a quantity of gold-dust



ANACAONA, QUEEN OF THE CARIBS.

sufficient to fill a hawk's bell, in value about \$25. This was the requirement of the people at large, while the headmen and caciques were taxed more heavily according to their rank. The amount assessed against the kings who had headed the recent confederacy was half a gourdful each, about \$150. In his rapacity Columbus failed to regard the fact that gold was not universally distributed, and that the difficulty of collecting it was ten times greater in some parts of the island than in others. His proclamation was nevertheless universal, and explicit compliance therewith was severely demanded. It was only a short while before the islanders bowed to the exactions thus imposed and entered upon their slavish task. But the impossibility of universal compliance directly became apparent. Guarionex was the first to appear before the Admiral with his complaint and to assure him that his people could not possibly meet the exaction, and in a spirit of humility suggested a commutation of service. As an evidence that he

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His proclamation

was not a petitioner for the removal of the burdens that had been imposed, he accordingly offered to substitute agricultural products of more than the equivalent value, on condition that his people be relieved from the exaction of gathering gold. He also told the Admiral that under such terms his people would devote themselves to planting and cultivating the territory of the island, reaching from sea to sea, which might be rendered sufficiently productive to provide for the wants of all Spain, and the value of which would be greatly in excess of all the gold that might be gathered from the island.

At the time this proposition was made the colony was well provided with provisions, and Columbus had no mind to listen to the petitions of the chief. But perceiving directly the impossibility of securing the amount of gold which he had imposed as a tribute, under sheer necessity he finally agreed to reduce the amount to one-half of that first named per capita.

PITILESS HARDSHIPS IMPOSED BY GREED.

Under these pitiless exactions the Indian population of Hispaniola was virtually reduced to servitude. The oppression of this despotic law was ten-fold greater by reason of the fact that the natives had always enjoyed a perfect freedom, the natural productions of the soil relieving them from all necessity of manual labor. Even their allegiance to their caciques was so loose as to leave them in a state of semi-license, nature having confederated with the simple laws of barbaric life, which forbade servitude and encouraged freedom. Their diet being almost exclusively vegetable, they possessed little strength, and engagement in severe labor quickly exhausted their energies. The greater part of their time had, therefore, been spent in sleep, plays, or dances. They were a people, too, not without other amusements, for they had their wandering poets and story-tellers who rendered in simple lays adventures of the Caribs and the histories of sorcerers. They had also their poems, called *areytos*, which were translated into several idioms of the island and chiefly celebrated Anacaona, a wife of one of the chiefs, whose name signified "golden flower." Under the circumstances the edict of the Admiral fell upon them like a pall. The inhabitants had intelligence enough to understand the alteration in their condition and the hopelessness of the future. Gloom came like the shadow of an ominous cloud and settled upon the Indians, transforming them from a cheerful and careless race into a people whose characteristics now became sullen repugnance and despair. Complaints which he knew to be well founded had no other effect upon Columbus than to increase his activities in extending his power against the day when he perceived it would be necessary to meet an uprising of the oppressed people. To this end he adopted the plan of multiplying the fortifications which he had established in the island, locating them in such situations as to give a military advantage to the government.

THE COLUMBIAN DEFAMERS AT COURT.

Early in the spring of 1495 complications thickened around Columbus until the threads of sequence may with difficulty be traced through the tangled web of the general event. Complex forces began to work on both sides of the Atlantic and to combine in unexpected proportions in the issue and course of current history. In due course of time Margarite and the treacherous prelate, Buyl, arrived in Spain fully charged with the falsehoods which they were anxious to deliver to their Majesties. In the reports which they proceeded to make and authenticate by means of others as treacherous as themselves were blended all the elements of prejudice, misrepresentation and malice. Having broken completely with the Admiral, the conspirators were now under the necessity of utterly destroying his fame or being themselves driven in disgrace from the royal presence.

Having a temporary advantage they employed it to the fullest extent, and going directly to the King and Queen, delivered such mendacious assaults against the methods and personal character of Columbus that even the Queen herself was affected by the serious charges that were made. At all events the effect on the court was sufficient to procure an order for the sending out of a royal delegation to the West Indies to thoroughly consider the condition of affairs and prepare a complete report respecting the administration of Columbus and his subordinates. At the same time the exclusive license which had been granted to Columbus was revoked and general permission was given to all native Spaniards to sail on voyages of discovery or to establish themselves as landholders in Hispaniola and other parts of the New World. This measure, by which the well-established



DE TORRES MAKING HIS REPORT TO THE SOVEREIGNS.

prerogatives of the viceroy were to be put aside and the countries which he had discovered thrown open to miscellaneous adventurers, was promoted by Vincente Yanez Pinzon, who after the death of Alonzo became the representative of that powerful family at Palos. He being a man of wealth and rank proposed to the Spanish sovereigns to fit out a squadron and prosecute the work of West Atlantic discovery at his own expense, which was considered with such favor that his requests were promptly granted, thus sweeping away all the grants, privileges and honors which had been reserved by solemn compact for Columbus.

CIRCUMVENTING THE CALUMNIATORS.

In anticipation of the assaults that would be made by Margarite and De Buyl against his character, Columbus had wisely despatched Antonio de Torres to carry home to Spain the antidote for the poison which was to be administered by the mutineers. Just at the time when Margarite and the vicar had secured the order from the sovereigns for an examination of the Admiral's administration, the fleet of De Torres arrived at Cadiz, and the captain proceeded to report to the sovereigns the actual condition of affairs in the island. He was also able to verify his declarations by a display of products, including much gold

and the five hundred Indian slaves that had been sent, as already narrated. His statements and the material proofs produced the happiest effects upon Ferdinand and Isabella, who could not fail to perceive the manifest, tangible, indubitable evidence of the conspiracy of Margarite and De Buyl and the falseness of the greater part of their narration. Something of a reaction immediately followed, and a new order was issued which, while it did not completely rescind the former, was nevertheless much more favorable to Columbus and his party. It was now directed that instead of sending to the Indies a person to be nominated by De Fonseca, whose enmity towards Columbus he had never sought to disguise, the appointment should be given to Juan Aguado, a Spaniard of high standing whom Columbus considered his friend and whom he had on an occasion recommended to the favor of the King and Queen.

THE QUEEN ORDERS THE SLAVES RETURNED.

But while commending Columbus in some particulars, their Majesties disclaimed his method of discipline, and even condemned some of his harsh measures, the salutary effects of which they had not been able to appreciate. In addition the Queen specially reprehended the enslavement of the natives, and instead of putting them on the market in Seville for sale, as Columbus had suggested, she determined that they should be returned to their native land, and not only given their freedom, but that proper apology should be rendered for the outrage that had been committed by this attempt to force them into bondage. However, this decision was not immediately reached, as the Queen had a mind to first defer to a conference of theologians with a view to obtaining their opinions as to the justice of converting any of the Indian subjects, pagans though they were, into slaves. A majority of the prelates having debated the question among themselves, decided in the affirmative, to which decision a small minority objected.

It would appear from the results that the Queen deferred to the conference of prelates through courtesy, as slavery was a recognized institution in Spain at the time, and there was a general approval of it among what were called true Christians. But her humane instincts prompted her to take the question out of the hands of the referees, and with a sense of right which must ever hold her name among the justice-loving rulers of all the ages she liberated the captives and thereby established a precedent and rule which reflect the brightest lustre upon her reign.

Among other instructions which she gave Aguado was one to limit the colony at Isabella to five hundred souls, that the expenditure for provisions and supplies might be kept within the smallest limit; and she specially charged him to see that the rights of the islanders were justly observed, to the end that peace might reign and the Church be established among them.

A CRIMINAL FINDS A NATIVE WIFE AND FORTUNE.

Meanwhile affairs in San Domingo had been tending in such a direction that another crisis was about to arise in an unexpected manner. An officer named Miguel Diaz fell into a quarrel with another officer, and in the duel which followed he wounded his antagonist, as he supposed fatally. Some witnesses of the affair claimed that advantage had been taken by Diaz, so that the circumstance had the complexion of murder; and to escape a punishment which he thought might be inflicted he fled from the settlement and took refuge in an Indian town on the extreme southern border of the island, where he was well received and safe from pursuit. It chanced that the tribe on this coast was governed by a princess, who became infatuated with the white refugee, and whether this feeling was reciprocated or not, Diaz was married to her in some informal manner and

continued to reside in the village for some time. At length, however, he wearied somewhat of his Indian bride, which she perceiving, employed all her instincts and talents to devise some plan by which to hold the affections of her white husband. She had learned through her intercourse with Diaz that the prevailing passion with the Spaniards was a desire for gold. She therefore conceived that by revealing the fortunate resources of the territory over which she ruled she might bring hither a colony of Spaniards with whom her husband could affiliate and be at peace. As a matter of fact, the province which the princess governed was the richest in gold dust of all the districts of the island. Indeed, as the sequence shows, an ancient race, long before the incoming of the present islanders, had discovered the riches of this shore, and gathering much of its treasure had left behind their mining pits as the unmistakable evidences of their work to after times. This fact the Indian princess revealed to Diaz, whom she begged to bring his countrymen and abide with her forever.

To verify his wife's assertions Diaz paid a visit under the direction of guides to the district which she had described. There, to his amazement, he found gold scattered everywhere, and that the particles were much larger than any that had been found in the mines of Cibao. The Spaniard at a glance perceived that the discovery, if once known at Isabella, would produce the greatest excitement and perhaps lead to a transfer of a large part of the colony. To this tremendous motive there was also added another consideration, and that was the unhealthfulness of the northern coast where the colony was established, while here, on the river Ozema, the breezes were healthful and every prospect pleasant. All this did Diaz consider as an argument which, he was confident, would secure his pardon for the crime with which he was charged at Isabella.

Before Diaz could put his plans into execution Aguado arrived on the coast of Hispaniola, whose presence for the time being repressed the desire which Diaz had to communicate his fortunate discovery to the colonists. At the time of Aguado's arrival Columbus was conducting an expedition into the interior of the island, leaving Bartholomew, his brother, exercising the office of Adelantado in his absence.

THE ARROGANCE OF AGUADO.

Aguado, instead of coming as the friend of Columbus, was so exalted by the authority which had been placed in his hands that he assumed the bearing of a dictator, and presenting his credentials from the King and Queen to Bartholomew Columbus, he claimed the authority that had been delegated to the viceroy. The colonists at once perceived that so far as Columbus was concerned and his government of the island, this assumption of power was the practical overthrow of his rule. No sooner was this discovery made than all the pessimistic diabolism of the colony came to the surface. Order was at an end and all authority set at naught. A state of circumstances immediately supervened on which Aguado might well have based a truthful report of anarchy. Placing himself under the influence of malcontents and criminals, this royal agent went about to organize a constitution embodying all the vicious principles of the malevolent band who from the beginning had used their efforts to overthrow Columbus. He began also to gather materials for a tremendous incriminating report, which he expected to make to their Majesties against the man who had recommended him to them for promotion.

Of all this Columbus for the time knew nothing. But it was spread abroad that he had heard of the coming of Aguado and, knowing himself superseded, had personally absented himself from the colony to avoid arrest. Instead of this being true, however, as soon as the Admiral learned of the high-handed business that had occurred at Isabella, he at once proceeded to that place and presented himself before Aguado. There was much

expectation of a square issue, perhaps of violence, between the two men. But the Admiral forestalled such a sensation by asking in a mild and complacent manner to hear the reading of Aguado's commission, and when this request was granted he declared his perfect deference and respect to the will and purpose of their Majesties. While this conduct in a measure disarmed the malice of Aguado, the Spaniards looked upon Columbus as a fallen man, for they had no doubts that the reports which had been carried to Ferdinand and Isabella by Margarite and Buyl had sufficed to work his ruin.

A DREADFUL HURRICANE.

The effect upon the natives was even more disastrous. The caciques and head men began at once to take council how they might throw off the Spanish yoke and regain their independence. All these discontents, threatenings, mutterings and rising troubles were so much pabulum to Aguado, who soon gathered all the desired materials and information and reckoned himself ready to return to Spain. He accordingly prepared his ships and was about to sail when, without warning, the sky grew black on the side of the east, the sea and the heavens began to commingle and roar, while the lightnings blazed and a terrific hurricane such as not even tradition had ever before recorded burst along the coast. The havoc was astounding. The ocean rolled in landward, deluging the lowlands for miles from the shore. The forests were torn and twisted out of the semblance of nature by the irresistible winds; dwellings were blown away like bunches of straw; and worst of all the ships in the harbor, with the solitary exception of the little *Niña* of blessed memory, were dashed to pieces. After some hours of this terrible work the tempest went on its way to Cuba, and Aguado and his proposed report were indefinitely stranded.

It now remained for the Admiral to reorganize the resources of the colony, and even to provide for the home voyage of his adversary. To this end he ordered that the *Niña* should be repaired, and that the timbers of the wrecked vessels should be collected for the construction of another ship, which he named the *Santa Cruz* (Holy Cross). At length, the work having been completed,



BUILDING OF THE SANTA CRUZ.

however, destiny had prepared for him an argument of more solid structure than any



THE HURRICANE.

preparations were made to sail. But it was the purpose of Columbus to take one of the ships for himself, leaving the other to Aguado, the Admiral having made up his mind that the royal emissary should not return to Spain alone. He also would go thither and confront Aguado in the very court and before their Majesties. In the meantime,

which his sanguine nature had been able to devise. Now it was that young Miguel Diaz, having heard of the disaster and discontent at the colony, had arrived at Isabella from the new gold fields of the river Ozema, thinking that the time was most propitious for the plans which he had conceived. As fortune would have it, the soldier whom he had wounded as he supposed to death had recovered, so that to his surprise Diaz could return to the colony without being under the reproach of a serious crime. He at once communicated to the Admiral and his brother Bartholomew the tidings about the new discovery of gold. This intelligence was accompanied by the presentation of many fine specimens of the precious metal, so that nothing was left for skepticism. So often had he been deceived, however, that Columbus deemed it expedient to despatch Bartholomew and a company of experts to make a thorough examination of the new mines, to the end that his information might be definite and exact.

OPENING OF GOLD MINES FOR CENTURIES ABANDONED.

The explorers crossed the island without accident and arrived at their destination on the southern coast about two hundred and forty miles distant from Isabella, where they found everything as Diaz had represented. Not only were evidences of gold to be found in great abundance, but particles were picked up without difficulty and in a fair measure of abundance. This distribution of gold was found to be uniform over a district or territory about six miles square, where Bartholomew discovered many old mining pits in which the workmen of a vanished race had toiled and gathered the precious metal ages before the coming of Columbus. The company of explorers were able to gather and take away such considerable quantities of gold as to furnish the Admiral with a visible proof of the value and promise of the new discovery. With these valuable specimens, which were to prove a blessing to Columbus in the hour when he should meet the Spanish sovereigns to give account of his stewardship, he prepared his ships, also taking on board a cargo of trophies, including Caonabo, his brother and nephew, and Carib Indians to the number of thirty. There had been so much sickness and melancholy in the colony that when the ships were ready to sail a majority entreated Columbus for permission to return home, and not being willing to oppose these requests in the presence of Aguado, who might construe the act as cruel, Columbus granted the privilege to nearly all those who asked. For this reason the ships were crowded with passengers whose disappointment and grief might well have darkened any voyage.

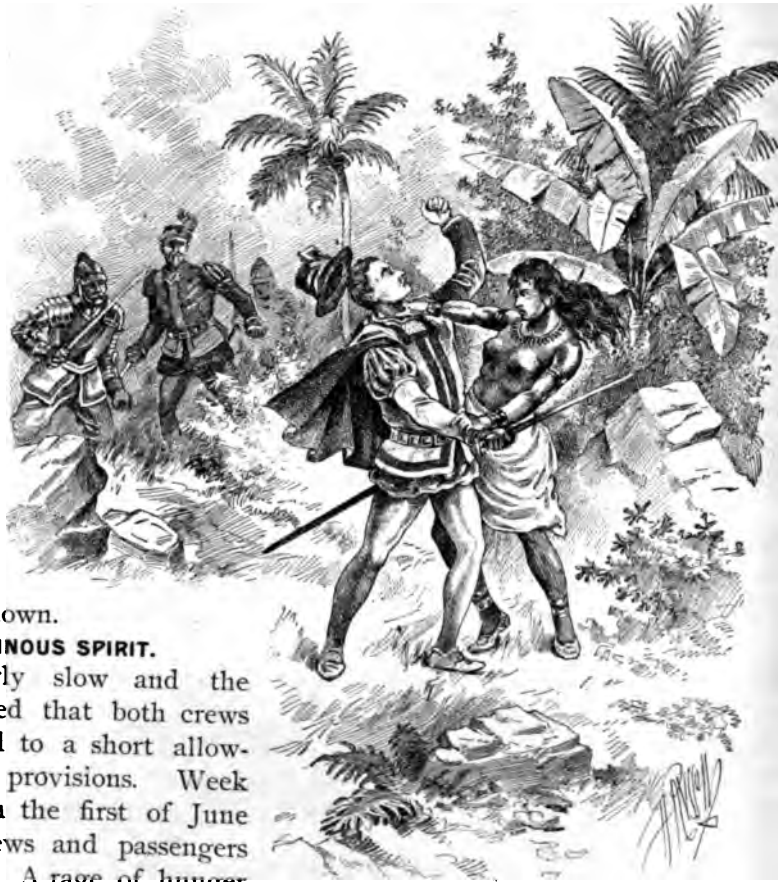
On the 10th of March, 1496, the two vessels departed from Isabella and set out to sea, bearing towards the south. Had the Admiral veered toward the north he might have escaped the adverse trade winds and found free sailing towards the European coast. Taking the other route, however, the eastern winds struck his vessels and constantly pressed him back among the Caribbean islands, so that, all of March and the first week of April, the vessels made scarcely any progress whatever. In fact, on the 9th of April the Admiral found himself on the coast of Maria Galante, which he had named in the early part of his second voyage. On the next day he was at Guadaloupe, where the ships were anchored and exploring parties sent on shore. Their reception by the islanders was as hostile as it had been two years previously, and descending to attack, the Spaniards opened fire upon the savages, who fled into the interior and took refuge in their village which stood nearly a league from the shore.

MORE EVIDENCES OF CANNIBALISM.

The Spaniards, making an incursion some miles from the beach, discovered honey in considerable quantities, and at one of the villages they found implements apparently of

iron (probably iron-wood), and the limbs of human beings roasting on spits before the fire, where they had been abandoned by the Indians at the approach of the white visitors.

Several wild exploits characterized this visit of the Spaniards, who not being able to come in contact with the Indian men, succeeded in capturing a band of native women and boys. Among the former was one who had the appearance of a savage princess. At all events she was an aboriginal Bellona, whom the whites had great difficulty in capturing. Outstripping all her pursuers except one fleet-footed Spaniard, she suddenly turned round, and seizing him with the clutch of a tiger was about to strangle him to death, and would no doubt have succeeded but for the timely arrival of his companions, who relieved him from his dangerous situation. This company of women and boys was taken on board the Admiral's ships, but he immediately set them all at liberty in obedience to the orders which he had received from the Queen. The Amazonian princess, however, became acquainted with the captives on the vessel, in particular with king Caonabo, with whom she fell wildly in love and refused to return on shore, thus casting in her lot with the other captives. On the 20th of April the squadron finally cleared the islands and stood off for Europe, but a more tedious voyage or one ultimately attended with greater hardships has rarely been known.



STARVATION AND A MUTINOUS SPIRIT.

Progress was particularly slow and the voyage was so long protracted that both crews and passengers were reduced to a short allowance through the failure of provisions. Week after week passed and when the first of June came the condition of the crews and passengers was horrible in the extreme. A rage of hunger began to prevail over reason, until at last came the suggestion of that very cannibalism which the Spaniards had observed among the Caribbean islanders. Some of the sailors began to look askance at the Indian prisoners, and then the proposal was openly made that they be killed and eaten. This proposition, however, Columbus strongly resented, and when the enraged men were disposed to execute their threats in defiance of his orders he put himself between them and the cowering Caribs, exhibiting at once such dignity and resolution that the sailors shrank from his glowering gaze. Next the men proposed that the Indians should be thrown overboard, that the consumption of food might be thus diminished. But this proposition was likewise refused by the Admiral, and the mutinous spirit of the men rapidly

A NATIVE WOMAN STRANGLING HER PURSUER.

increased. In an hour when hunger and rage were upon the point of manifesting themselves in violent action the Admiral perceived from his chart that the vessels were near Cape St. Vincent. He tried with this assurance to soothe the rage of the crew but they only mocked at his hopefulness and faith. With the coming of the evening he ordered the taking in of sails lest the vessels might in the darkness be run upon the rocks of the expected shore, which orders the men obeyed with sullen looks. But in the morning there, sure enough, rose St. Vincent from the sea, and the usual reaction from despair to confidence was exhibited by the men gathering around Columbus and apologizing for their insubordination.

It was the 11th of June when the harbor of Cadiz was reached and the storm-shattered ships brought to safe anchorage. Such was the pitiable condition to which both passengers and crew had now been reduced that the going ashore was a spectacle most melancholy and disheartening. Nor may we conclude this narrative of the second voyage without noting the end of Caonabo. That haughty chieftain had maintained his indignant but silent anger against the Spaniards until his barbaric pride at last yielded to death, which occurred just before the completion of the voyage. By his side in his last hours were assembled his brother, his nephew, and the Amazonian princess of Guadaloupe, and the other captives. Thus he expired—perhaps the bravest and most capable chieftain of the West Indies. Certainly his character was of a kind to impress itself strongly upon the minds and memories of the Spaniards, who could but hold him in respect for his courage and manly bearing. His body was committed to the sea; there in that deep, oozy bed which has swallowed up in everlasting silence so many of the secrets and tragedies of human life, the Carib King of Cibao sleeps until the final day, while—

“Descends on the Atlantic
The gigantic
Storm-wind of the Equinox.”



CHAPTER XIV.

RETURN OF COLUMBUS FROM HIS SECOND EXPEDITION.



AME is as fickle as fortune and rarely more enduring. Like the flower that blooms in beauty for a season and is cut down by chilling frosts, so does fame perish under the withering breath of calumny and envious rivalry. Rewards for great deeds are rarely bestowed upon the living, so slow is man's appreciation, the disposition of mankind being to withhold acknowledgment of dues, to confer apotheosis after death, when jealousy has nothing more to feed upon. How singularly trite do these observations appear when we apply them to the life of Columbus! In the beginning, so obscure as to invite the ridicule of dignitaries when appealing to the great for recognition of his beneficent scheme; in his success raised to such eminence as won the homage of the world when even royalty would pay to him a degree of reverence. But while winning renown the sleuth-hound of vindictive envy was pursuing

with relentless muzzle of hate to tear with teeth of spite and malice his reputation and bring him into national disrepute.

So well had the power of malevolence been exercised by his enemies that when Columbus landed from his second voyage there were none to give him becoming welcome; none to offer congratulations; no royal messenger to greet his return. Stung by the deceits of those who should have been his votaries, and overwhelmed by the success of his traducers, Columbus for a while seriously contemplated retirement from the vanities of the world within the convent walls of La Rabida, whither his best friend, Father Perez, had returned to end his days. To this purpose he adopted the garb of a Franciscan monk and wrapped about him the cord of consecration, intending henceforth to devote himself to pious contemplation, trusting in God to reward the services which those who were most advantaged by them neglected to recognize.

Informing the Spanish sovereigns of his arrival, it was not until one month afterwards that a reply came to his notification in the form of a message written from Almozan, which was manifest proof that the director of marine had awaited the report of Aguado, as well as statements of others who had proved themselves hostile to his acts and purposes, before giving him any recognition. But strange as it may appear, the royal message, tardy as it was, felicitated him upon his successful voyage and invited him to repair at once to Burgos, where the Court had a temporary residence. So encouraging and congratulatory was the letter that Columbus, roused from his despondency, cast aside his Franciscan habit and proceeded at once to Burgos, carrying with him the rich trophies of his second expedition, among which were many masks and nuggets of gold to please the avaricious

eyes of Ferdinand. Several of the Indian captives also accompanied him, including the brother of Caonabo, who wore around his neck a chain of gold weighing six hundred castellanos, equal to the value of \$3,200.

Greatly to his delight Columbus was received by Isabella with many marks of admiration, as if to show him that her faith in his integrity and noble intentions had not been



COLUMBUS PRESENTING THE BROTHER OF CAONABO TO THE SOVEREIGNS.

affected by the base charges of his enemies; and with a feeling of thankfulness and pride he narrated to their Highnesses his new discoveries among the Antilles, and presented the valuable as well as many curious specimens which he had brought from the New World. Ferdinand was sensibly touched by the nuggets of gold that were shown in proof of Columbus' statements concerning the wealth of Hispaniola, but Isabella's interest was excited

most by the many curious objects exposed, including images, weapons, birds, animals and plants, of which Columbus brought a large collection. So pleased were the Spanish sovereigns with the interview that in dismissing Columbus they took occasion to publicly honor him to the great confusion of his enemies.

A week later the Queen consulted Columbus, by letter written from Laredo, as to the best route to be taken by the fleet of one hundred and thirty vessels commissioned to convey to Flanders the Infanta Doña Juana, affianced to Archduke Philip of Austria, which furnished additional evidence of her confidence in him as a faithful servitor. But while Columbus was grateful for these royal kindnesses, he chafed under disappointments which threatened the colonists in Hispaniola. On arriving at Cadiz he found three caravels, under command of his old pilot, Pedro Alonzo Niño, ready to sail with supplies for the colonists, and was barely able to receive despatches intended for him and to transmit a few additional instructions to his brother, Don Bartholomew, before the flotilla departed. These supplies were sufficient to meet present emergencies, but the necessity for Columbus' quick return to Hispaniola was still very great, because he had left the island in a disturbed state, as already explained, and in case the islanders rose in rebellion or withheld supplies the colonists would be in a dangerous situation. He had therefore expected to meet his accusers at the Spanish Court, clear his good name, recruit a large additional force, and with a fleet well laden with stores accomplish his return to Hispaniola in less than three months. Instead of realizing his expectations he found no opportunity to present his requests to the Queen, whose urgent engagements gave her no time to consider his needs. He was therefore compelled to wait in silence, to restrain his impatience, and trust to time for a favorable presentation of his necessities. Month after month thus slipped by until autumn arrived, and nothing was as yet done towards securing a fleet of vessels. When at length application was made, Ferdinand met the request with the statement that the condition of the public treasury would not permit of the equipment of another squadron; besides, neither vessels nor men were procurable for the purpose.

In his dilemma Columbus finally found opportunity to appeal to Isabella, who promptly responded with an advance of six million maravedis from the treasury of Castile; but about this time, October 20th, Pedro Alonzo Niño returned from Hispaniola, and proceeding to his home, sent a letter to the Court announcing that he had a large amount of gold on board his ships. Upon receipt of this news Ferdinand diverted the six million maravedis contributed by the Queen to perfecting the fortifications of Roussillon, threatened by the French, and ordered that a like sum be supplied to Columbus from the gold brought by Niño's caravels. Thus affairs rested until the latter part of December, when it was ascertained that the large amount of gold which Niño claimed to have brought from Hispaniola was in the form of three hundred Indian captives, which he explained might be converted into the treasure of which he exultingly spoke.

This harmful metaphor, or rather absurd hyperbole, threw Ferdinand into a fit of rage, while the Queen was both angered and chagrined, and Columbus was grieved beyond expression. Isabella, mild in manner and always generous, was nevertheless prompted to punish the presumption of Niño, or whoever was responsible for the violation of her orders, and she was only persuaded from such a course by the defence that was set up, wherein allegation was made that the Indian captives were charged with the murder of many Spaniards, who had been brought to Spain for sentence, enslavement being the most fitting punishment.

After his awakening from a golden dream, the enemies of Columbus assailed him anew

with increased disparagement and virulence, but Isabella continued steadfast in her friendship through all the evil report that mendacity could devise. But she was not able to give him substantial encouragement until April 23d, 1497, when she issued an ordinance for the purchase of supplies for the expedition and granted permission to the Admiral to enlist under pay of the crown three hundred and thirty persons, representing the various trades, who should become colonists of the Indies; at the same time reaffirming all the privileges granted to him by the compact signed at Santa Fé five years before. But it now became necessary to make some modifications in that agreement, because Columbus had been unable to carry out his part of the covenant. He joyfully accepted the conditions, which were indeed of his own proposing, that for an eighth of the revenue accruing from his explorations he was to provide a like part of the expense, but to his mortification his expeditions while of great geographical importance and prospective commercial value to the Spanish Crown, had not been attended by those profits which his over-sanguine mind had pictured, and hence he was too poor to comply with his agreements. Thus was he therefore still depend-

ent upon the Queen's bounty, even as much as when a petitioner for royal patronage under which to equip his first expedition.

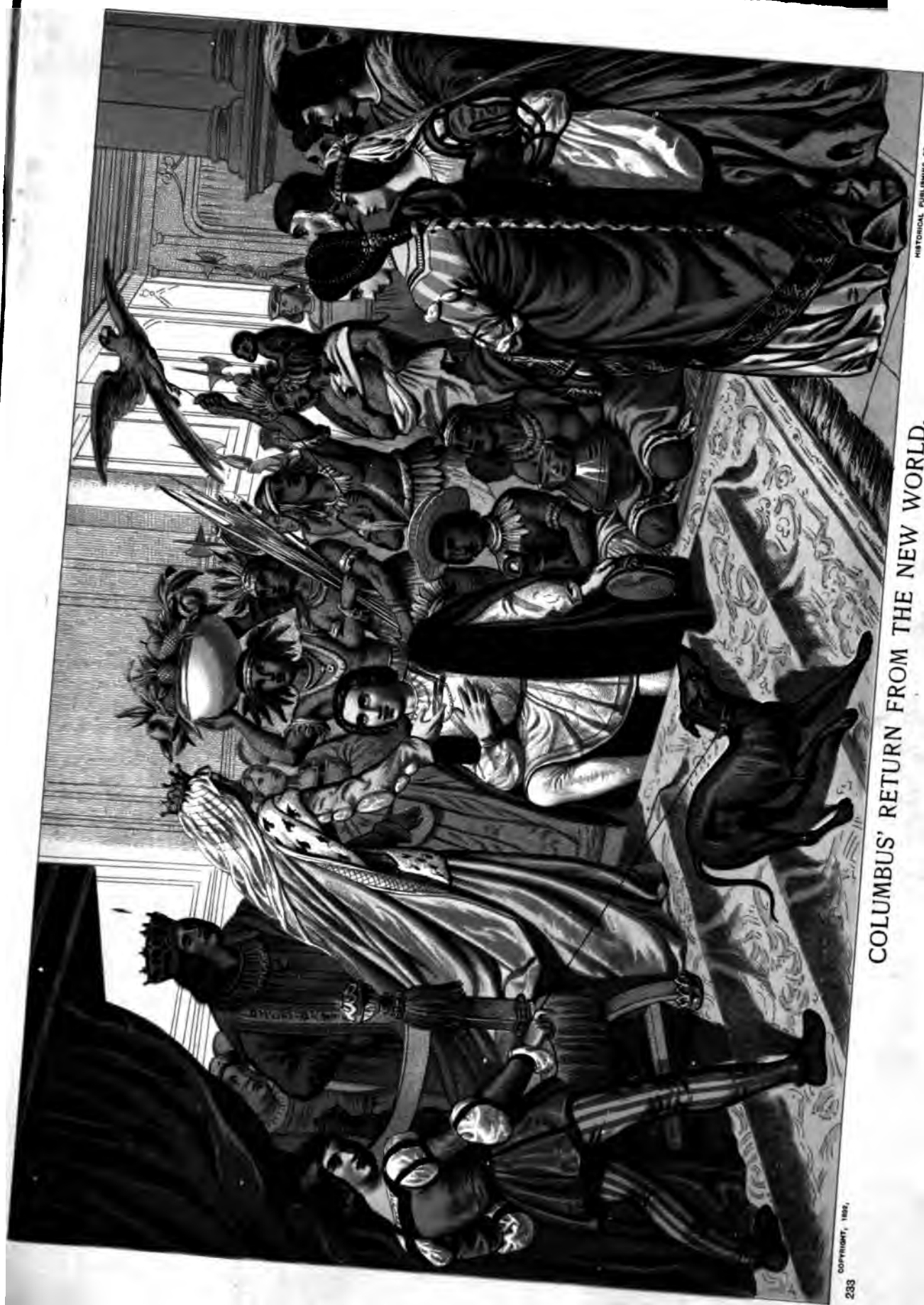
Queen Isabella was as magnanimous as she was pious, and being appreciative of the honor which his glorious deeds had conferred upon



COLUMBUS EXECUTING HIS WILL, AT SEVILLE.

her crown she remitted that part of the agreement which imposed pecuniary obligations upon Columbus, and yet confirmed to him not only the rights stipulated in the original compact but also made a generous tender to him of a dukedom in Hispaniola, comprising a tract one hundred and fifty miles long by half as many wide. This kindly proffer, however, he declined, foreseeing that its acceptance would only serve to expose him to more malignant attacks of his enemies, who would make the most of such a gift as an evidence of his sordid ambition. But the Queen, anxious to show her regard for his unselfish service, granted to him the right of perpetual entail of his estates and titles, and at the same time rescinded the prerogatives given in 1495 to other explorers to make discoveries in the New World.

In the exercise of the privilege the Queen had in her magnanimity conferred, Columbus executed his will at Seville in April, 1498, by which he made a devisement to his male descendants and in default of these to his female lineage, of all his property, titles, royalties and benefits accruing under the terms of his agreements with the Spanish crown. By this testament he provided generously for his brother Bartholomew, then serving as Adelantado or governor in his absence at Hayti, and likewise settled bountiful portions upon his sons Diego and Fernando though the bequests were of properties prospective



COLUMBUS' RETURN FROM THE NEW WORLD.

rather than real. His relatives at Genoa were also remembered liberally, after which he set aside one-tenth of all the revenues that remained for charitable purposes. Nor did he forget to provide for the execution of his controlling ambition, which was the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, to which end his will contained a request that Diego, or whoever inherited his estate, should invest whatever moneys he could spare in the stock of the bank of St. George at Genoa, there to remain as a permanent and growing fund until it could be used in reasonable effort to accomplish the conquest of Jerusalem. If the king did not undertake the recovery, then at an auspicious time Diego himself was charged to set on foot a crusade at his own risk and invite other sovereigns to join him in wresting the holy shrine from the profanation of infidels.

The hopes renewed by these evidences of the Queen's regard lifted Columbus again into latitudes of golden expectation, a felicitous feeling which was further accentuated by official permission to equip another expedition at government expense, consisting of three hundred and thirty persons in the royal pay, and a fleet of six vessels; of those to be enlisted for the expedition, one hundred men went as foot-soldiers, and there were forty servants, thirty sailors, thirty cabin boys, fifty agriculturists, twenty miners, twenty mechanics, ten gardeners, and thirty females. As an incentive to enlistment Columbus was authorized to grant lands to those desiring to engage in agriculture, and to issue patents after an occupation of four years.

But while the interests of the colonists were thus promoted by generous concessions, the Queen showed her care for the natives by charging Columbus to treat them with the greatest leniency, and to see that their religious instruction was attended to; in short, to conciliate them by acts of kindness and in no case to exercise harshness except as a last resort in restraint of rebellious or murderous propensities.

The preliminaries having been arranged, Columbus published a call for volunteers under the royal manifesto, but it only served to bring him into unexpected difficulties which threatened to abort all his plans. The activity of enemies operating to bring him into odium and to depict the world of his discovery as a land of misery, poverty, hardships and death, chilled the ardor of enthusiasts and adventurers so effectually that none could be induced to proffer their services. The sorry showing which Columbus had been able to make on his return from two expeditions likewise inspired shipowners with caution, and these now hesitated to charter their vessels for such an enterprise. His plans being thus brought to an abrupt termination through the influences of envy and cowardice, Columbus was compelled to apply to the Queen for permission to impress men and ships for his service. This request was not fully complied with, but the second proposal that a company be recruited from condemned criminals was accepted. Under this arrangement culprits convicted of crimes other than heresy, treason, counterfeiting and murder were permitted to enlist, and their terms of imprisonment were commuted to service under Columbus in the New World for periods proportionate to the atrocity of their crimes.

But even after the required ships and recruits were obtained, vexatious delays continued to harass Columbus and threaten the departure of the expedition. A change was made about this time in the superintendence of Indian affairs which necessitated a withdrawal of commissions issued jointly to Columbus and Antonio de Torres; while Fonseca, one of Columbus' most bitter enemies, was reinstated as de Torres' successor. The commissions and contracts had therefore to be issued anew, which it took some time to do. As if in confirmation of the old adage that troubles never come singly, in the midst of these annoyances the good Queen was overwhelmed with intelligence of the death of



COLUMBUS KNOCKING DOWN THE INSOLENT JEW.

her only son and heir apparent to Leon and Castile, Prince Juan, whom Fernando and Diego had served as pages. To add to the woe that had crushed her great heart, her daughter, Juana, just married to the Archduke Philip of Austria, was seized by a mental malady that clouded her mind forever.

Poor Isabella ! Even a queen filled with such tender graces as thine may not escape the blinding calamities that break the hearts of mothers whose throne is set up in the affections of their children. But bravely, as became a woman consecrated to the holiest service of God and man, she bore up under her afflictions, and though her eyes were filled with scalding tears her ears opened to the appeals of Columbus. She never forgot that across the great sea was a feeble colony possibly suffering, aye, dying, for want of supplies which she only could furnish. So, from the money which she intended as an endowment for her daughter Isabella, who was soon to marry Emanuel, King of Portugal, she took enough to load two ships with supplies, and these were despatched early in 1498 under the command of Pedro Fernandez Coronel. Then as an evidence of her special regard for Columbus she made Fernando and Diego pages in her own court.

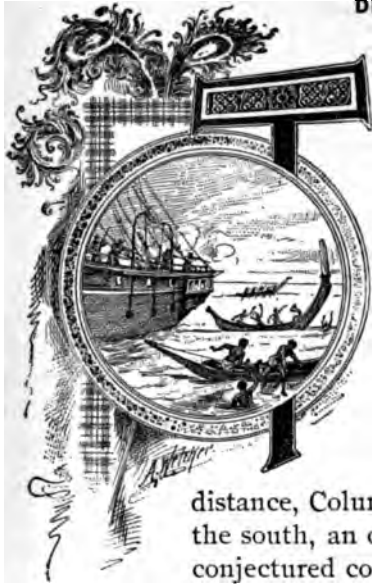
Fonseca spared no pains in his malignant effort to harass Columbus, which his new position enabled him to do so effectually that on several occasions the great mariner was so disheartened as to secretly resolve to abandon his enterprise. And these resolutions would no doubt have determined his actions had they not been overborne by the kind encouragement of the Queen, for whom, especially under her afflictions, he entertained the tenderest attachment born of profound sympathy. But every harassment has an end, as life itself, and Columbus, after great length of time found himself making progress. The six vessels were finally fitted for sea, crews and companies obtained, to which a surgeon, apothecary, physician, several priests and a band of musicians were added.

The annoyances from which he had now suffered for two years were to continue even to the hour of his departure, and their effects were felt the remainder of his life. Among the pestiferous hirelings of Fonseca was a Christianized Jew named Ximeno Breviesca, who held the position of accountant to his equally unworthy master. This most turbulent and insolent fellow seized the occasion to assail Columbus with all manner of vituperation, even at the time of weighing the anchors, evidently obeying Fonseca's wishes to humiliate him before the people whom he had been appointed to command. Incensed beyond the power of further control, Columbus struck down the wretch and administered to his contemptible body the kicks which he deserved. It was only the spirit of manhood asserting itself against the wolfish instinct of contumelious jealousy that had bitten his heels and showed its ravening teeth wherever he had gone ; but enemies turned this exhibition of outraged nature against him by pointing to the act as a proof of his overbearing cruelty with which he had long been charged by his traducers.



CHAPTER XV.

DEPARTURE OF THE THIRD EXPEDITION.



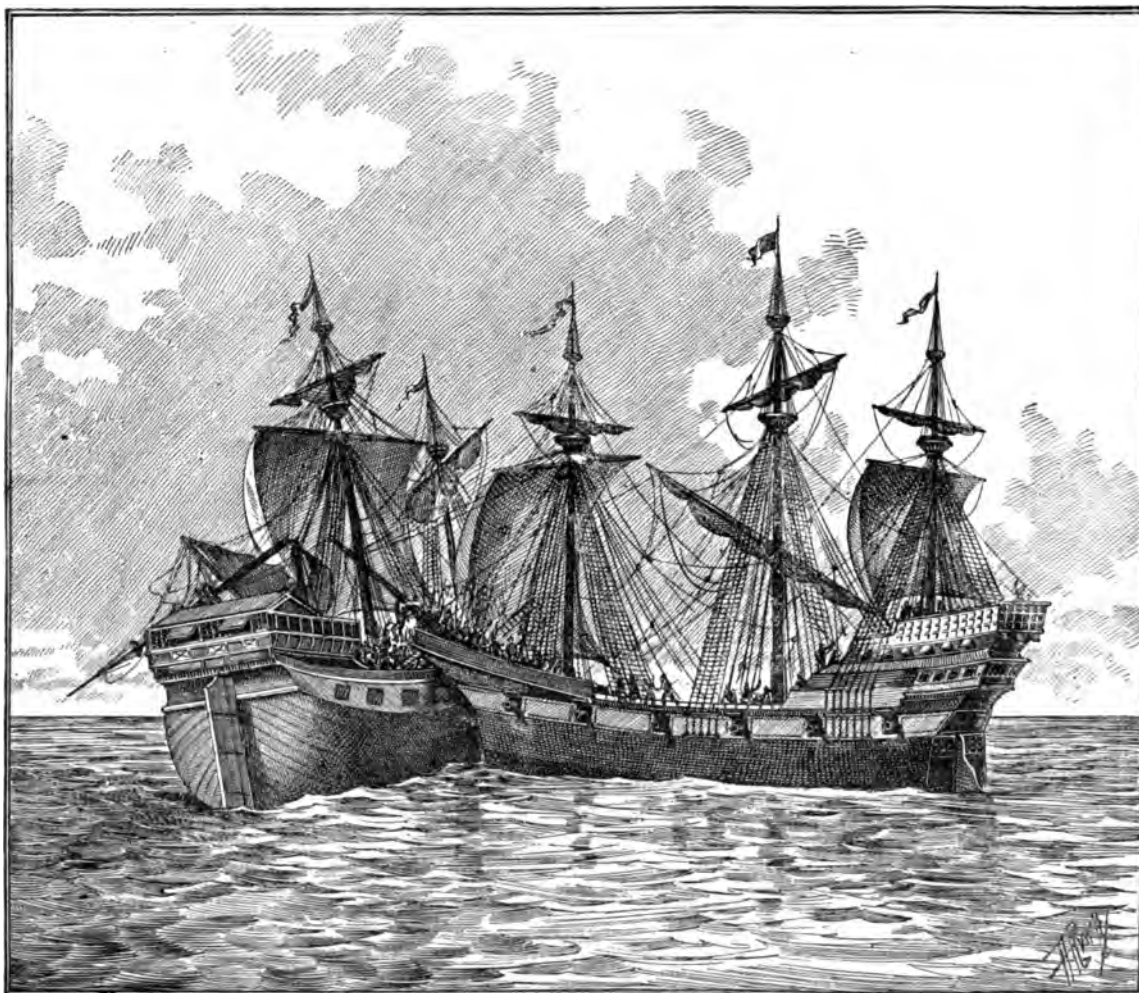
THE equipment of the expedition having at last been completed, Columbus ordered the anchors lifted and his fleet of six caravels departed on May 13th, 1498, from the harbor of San Lucar de Barrameda. Gaily the vessels trimmed their sails and swept out of the mouth of the Guadalquivir, past the old Moorish castle that stood commanding the entrance to the harbor, a mute reminder of the commercial importance of the port before the invaders had been driven out of Spain through the persistent valor of Spanish arms.

This third voyage of discovery was undertaken in pursuance of two distinct purposes, namely: Believing that Cuba was part of the main continent with a severe trend towards the west, along which he had sailed a considerable distance, Columbus concluded that another continent lay somewhere towards the south, an opinion first advanced by King John II., of Portugal. This conjectured continent he now determined to seek; but he was actuated to this search not merely by the honors such a discovery might bestow, for his ambition now took a more decidedly commercial turn, but also with the hope of being able to satisfy the covetous desires of Ferdinand and Isabella, who had become importunate for some compensation for the large expenditures which the two previous voyages had entailed. Columbus was also greatly influenced by the opinion advanced by a philosophic lapidary, who maintained that all productions of nature were sublimated by the rays of a torrid sun, and that not only was vegetation forced into the greatest exuberance by the tropic heat, but that precious metals and stones were likewise produced in the largest profusion under the rays of a vertical sun. Towards the equinoctial line he accordingly bent his way in the belief that, discovering a southern continent he would find there in great abundance those precious articles which would enrich his sovereigns, and that while thus obtaining their favor he would also bring confusion to his enemies.

The voyage was directed southward to Porto Santo and Madeira, now known as the Canary Islands, upon reaching which Columbus came unexpectedly upon a French warship that had just captured two Spanish prizes. He abandoned his purpose for the time being, and pursued the French vessel, the commander of which, having discovered the great odds against him, had sought safety in flight. Two days were thus lost. But Columbus had the satisfaction of recovering one of the Spanish vessels and seriously crippling the French cruiser. Turning south again, he proceeded to the island of Faroe, where he brought his vessels to for some needed repairs. He then decided to divide his fleet by sending three of the vessels, with all the stores that he could spare, directly to the colonists at San Domingo, while he retained the other three to pursue the purpose for which the expedition was organized.

HORRIBLE SUFFERING IN THE CALM LATITUDES.

The next detention occurred upon reaching the Cape Verd Islands, where he arrived on the 27th of June, and having taken in some additional supplies and a quantity of water, he set sail in a southwesterly direction until he fell into the calms, where his crew suffered all the agonies of extreme heat, and his provisions were so seriously injured as to render a great part of them unfit for human food. As they gradually advanced further into this fiery heat the fears of the sailors were increased, as they well might be, by the alarming effects which they now observed. The pitch with which the ships were smeared was melted and the seams opened, admitting the water, so that it was only by the most extraor-



COLUMBUS RECAPTURING THE FRENCH PRIZE.

dinary exertions that they were kept afloat. So also the wooden vessels in which their store of fresh water was kept shrunk until the hoops dropped off and the contents were wasted. Occasional showers fell, but these seemed rather to intensify than alleviate the dreadful heat, for the humidity of the atmosphere was thereby increased and rendered all the more oppressive.

This alarming situation continued for eight days and was so debilitating that the superstitious crew concluded that they were upon the confines of that world to which lost

souls are condemned, and Columbus was forced to exert all his persuasive influence to prevent them from leaping into the sea and thus concluding their insupportable misery. But as the crews of former expeditions had been relieved by changes which they had despaired of realizing, so at length they passed out of this intolerable condition and beyond the meridian of heat, emerging at last into a cooler atmosphere where a fresh breeze stimulated their hopes anew, and they proceeded with great encouragement out of their despondence. But the spoiling of the provisions rendered it necessary that Columbus should reach land as soon as possible, and accordingly he changed his course directly westward, in the hope of gaining some of the Caribbee Islands, where he might anchor and repair his vessels.

DISCOVERY OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN CONTINENT.

Their progress, however, was slow, and food so scarce that serious alarm was renewed. But good fortune was to attend them in the hour of greatest despair, for on the last day of July a mariner of Huelva, named Alonzo Perez Nizzardo, acting as watch on board the Admiral's ship, gave the signal of land ahead. Every eye was quickly strained westward, and to their inexpressible delight they saw the triple peaks of a mountain range rising from the ocean. By one of those coincidences which Columbus was always quick to discover and upon which his mind, still deeply immersed in the bonds of superstition, rested with so much confidence, these three mountain heights were imagined by him to answer to a vow which he had made that he would name the first new land discovered The Trinity. Accordingly he gave the name *La Trinidad* to the new island—for such it proved to be—and that name it has borne to the present day. A short sail to the westward brought him along a shore on which all the luxuriance of the tropical islands was exhibited, but no natives were visible. Further inland, however, villages were seen, but the people had taken flight and concealed themselves in the forest coverts.

A voyage of several leagues was necessary before a safe landing-place was found, but a favorable anchorage was at length reached in a sheltered cove, on the banks of which was a luxurious vegetation, and running down the hillside was a brook of crystal water. Here the crews went on shore and collected native foods and laid in a supply of fresh water. But though many marks of human habitation were visible on every hand, the inhabitants continued to keep themselves so well hidden that not one was anywhere to be seen.

A sufficient quantity of supplies having been obtained, the voyage was renewed, and presently scanning the southern horizon Columbus discovered the outline of a long, low country rising but a few feet above the sea but extending a distance which he estimated at twenty leagues. He did not doubt but that it was another of the islands so plentifully distributed in the western waters. It proved, in fact, a tongue of land stretching out from the South American continent, which for six years he had been half-consciously approaching. Reaching the southwestern extremity of Trinidad, another stretch of land was seen, the point of which was marked by a lofty eminence resembling a tremendous rock, separated from the main land by a dangerous channel through which the water was rushing with an ominous sound. Here the vessels were greeted by a boat-load of natives who paddled out in their canoes from the shore and hailed the ships, but in a tongue which the interpreters could not understand. Every inducement was offered the natives to approach, but they were extremely wary, holding their paddles ready for instant flight in case any movement was made to arrest them. The men were armed with bows and arrows and some of them also had bucklers. Around their heads they wore rolls of cotton cloth fashioned somewhat like a turban, while their persons from the loins to the thighs were covered with colored clothing, in which respect they bore some resemblance to the fiercer natives that Columbus had met on the island of Cuba.

A SPAT WITH THE NATIVES.

In equipping the expedition Columbus had taken a band of musicians, appreciating how great was the influence of music upon the Indians with whom he had come in contact. Being unable to induce the new people to approach his vessel he now ordered his musicians on deck, and to the lively music which they produced the Spaniards executed a dance, but the significance of this action was radically mistaken by the Indians, who instead

**FURY OF A GREAT TIDAL WAVE.**

of responding with some form of native music and jubilation, let fly a shower of arrows at the performers, which belligerent action Columbus met by ordering a discharge from his cross-bowmen, whereupon the barbarians fled with great precipitation. They were afterwards induced to approach one of the smaller ships, the captain of which made them some

presents of hawk-bells and looking-glasses. But their confidence they strangely withheld, and when a boat was lowered to follow them to shore they took alarm and gaining the beach ran into the woods and were seen no more.

While lying at this point of land, which he called Cape Arenal, Columbus watched with great interest the ocean river which was seen to rush between the island and the opposite promontory. Acquainted though he was with ocean currents he had never beheld before such a turbulent and tossing rapid as was presented in this down-flowing channel. The seething salt sea river looked to him like a vast serpent rising and twisting between the two shores, on which account he called the pass into this roaring channel *Boca del Sierpe*, meaning the Mouth of the Serpent. Notwithstanding the dangers which seemed to threaten a passage of this turbulent strait Columbus was resolved upon gaining the mainland, but as a precautionary measure he sent forward one of the boats to make soundings and was greatly pleased to find that instead of a reef the depth was fully ten fathoms, which fact served to prove that the disturbance of the water was due to the meeting of incoming tides and a counter current. Before entering upon the passage a striking and frightful portent occurred, which the Admiral thus describes :—"Late at night," says he, "being on board my ship, I heard a terrible roaring and as I tried to pierce the darkness I beheld the sea to the south heaped up in a great hill, the height of the ship, rolling slowly towards us. The ships were lifted up and whirled along so that I felt that we should be engulfed in a commotion of waters ; but fortunately the mountainous surge passed on towards the mouth of the strait and after a contest with the counter current gradually subsided." Such tidal waves as Columbus thus described are of frequent occurrence on the coast of South America, to which they seem to be peculiar, though at rare intervals they have been seen along the shores of other tropical countries and even in mid-ocean.

IN THE MOUTH OF THE DRAGON.

Fortunately he escaped injury by this awe-inspiring occurrence, and setting his sails moved into the broad and open Gulf of Paria, or Gulf of Pearls, bounded on the east by the curving coast of Trinidad and on the north by the long-projecting peninsula of Cariaco. He had proceeded only a few leagues into the gulf when his attention was called to the appearance of the water through which he was sailing, and on testing it, to his great surprise he found it fresh, yet everywhere as far as his eye could discern was an open sea. He was struck by the anomaly of a fresh water sea which was manifestly a part of the Atlantic, and he was therefore deeply anxious to pursue his inquiry to a solution of this singular mystery. He was not a long while, however, in concluding that he must be near a great continent, from the shores of which rushed down rivers in such great volumes as to overreach the sea and make the surface fresh, as it frequently is after a heavy rain. He sailed northward across the gulf, discovering that the passage from it led through another tempestuous outlet, even more threatening in appearance than was that of *Boca del Sierpe*. Rocks lined either shore and the current was so swift that to this exit he gave the name of *Boca del Dragon*, signifying the Mouth of the Dragon. He did not choose to enter this passage at once, but continued westward on the side of the peninsula until he came to a district some parts of which appeared to be under cultivation. Before this alluring region a landing was made and Columbus with several of the crew went on shore, this being the first time he had put his foot upon the soil of the great South American continent. Several natives were observed along the coast, but in every case they exhibited great timidity and took refuge in the forests whenever effort was made to approach them.

As Columbus went further inland he found the country in such a state of cultivation as to indicate the great industry of the inhabitants. At length, by the offer of presents and pacific assurances, some of the Indians were induced to enter a canoe to visit the ships, when some of the Spaniards who were near by succeeded in capsizing the boat and capturing half a dozen of the natives, upon whom they showered every possible favor, and after loading them with presents sent them off to their friends, trusting that the result would be beneficial. And so it proved, for seeing how well the captives had been treated, their friends became more free in their intercourse, and at length a covenant of friendship was established whereby some of the natives acted as guides and not only showed Columbus a considerable district of the country, but supplied him with information concerning its people and products.

ENTERTAINED BY A NATIVE CHIEF.

After a stay of a few days at their first landing place the vessels resumed their course until they came to another beautiful country, in which the landscape, as presented from the ship, was fascinating beyond anything the Spaniards had ever before beheld. The natives were also found to be friendly and very numerous, nor were they so timid as the other Indians whom Columbus had seen, for they sought intercourse with the Spaniards and presently came with a message from their cacique inviting the strangers to go on shore. The Admiral noted with delight that personal adornments, particularly collars and wristlets of burnished brass, were plentifully worn. But the natives insisted that these precious things were obtained from afar off and were the products of cannibal workmanship. Not so, however, with the pearls, which were now for the first time found in the hands of these Indians, for the natives assured him that they might be obtained in the greatest profusion among the oyster beds on the northern coast of their country, which was the peninsula of Carriaco. Presently came the Indian king himself, accompanied by his son, the prince, who having heard of the arrival of the white people upon the borders of his country became anxious to see and welcome them. His conduct was that of a dignified official, appreciative of royal honors, and yet having a generous demeanor which immediately excited the admiration of Columbus. He extended an urgent invitation to the Spaniards to visit his capital and enjoy the pleasures of his board, which was accepted by a company of twelve; but Columbus was at this time suffering so severely from gout that he could not accompany them. The Spaniards returned on the same evening with enthusiastic reports of the richness of the country and the abundance of the feast that had been set before them, besides collections of pearls, many implements of brass, also ornaments of the same, and not a few trinkets of gold. The manner of their reception was more refined, too, than any hitherto witnessed among the West Indian people. Nor was their visit entirely without profit, for they found the Indians glad to exchange their pearls and necklaces for such gew-gaws as the Spanish visitors chose to offer. They also brought back to the Admiral, as presents, from the cacique, many pearls of very great size and fine quality, which Columbus treasured with sacred pride with the intention of presenting them to her Majesty the Queen.

ON THE BORDERS OF PARADISE.

The country was indeed so picturesque, productive and healthful, that Columbus was for a while persuaded that he had discovered here the site of the terrestrial paradise, which



legend had described as being in some inaccessible part of the earth, around which the air was freighted with most delicious perfumes and out of which four great rivers that watered the banks of Eden poured down their sweetened tribute to the sea. Indeed, several subsequent letters written by Columbus confirmed the impression which the rare sights that he beheld in this favored region excited in him. He could not but believe, up to the time of his death, that he had been thus permitted to approach as near to the Eden out of which sprang the mother and father of mankind as Moses had gained in his march towards the land of promise.

Having sailed around the Gulf of Paria and finding himself hemmed in on the western circle, he made his way northward through the Mouth of the Dragon, but not until he had first explored it by a boat and determined the depth of the channel. It was through this passage, as the reader may well discover from its position, that the tremendous and ever-accumulating floods of the Gulf of Paria must find a vent into the open sea. So from south to north through the Boca del Dragon the water poured like the broken rapids of a great river. Indeed it were not far from truth to call the Gulf of Paria the bulb of that wonderful Gulf Stream which sweeps up the eastern coast of North America, spreads broadening across the Atlantic, and washes with its potent volume tropical waters of not only the British Isles but all the adjacent coasts of Europe. Threatening as this outlet appeared to be Columbus was nevertheless resolved to attempt its passage. His provisions were now almost wasted, and there were other reasons prompting him to return to San Domingo as soon as possible. Trusting his vessels, therefore to the current, they were swept out in safety, notwithstanding the fact that the wind was hushed at the most critical moment, preventing the pilot from giving the ships any direction. After gaining the open sea he discovered two other islands, to which he gave the names of Assumpcion and Concepcion, which are known in modern geography as Tobago and Grenada.

IN THE LAND OF PEARLS.

Not being willing to abandon the country without informing himself more fully as to its pearl productions, he turned to the west and proceeded as far as the islands of Marguerite and Cubaqua. Here, much to his gratification, he discovered the pearl fisheries and saw a boat-load of natives engaged in rifling the pearl oysters of their treasures. Making a stop here he opened communication with the Indians, and perceiving a woman around whose neck was a chain of unusually large and lustrous pearls he induced her to come on board his ship and exchange her possessions for pieces of a colored porcelain plate which he broke up and distributed in barter for a large quantity of these precious products of the oyster. Three pounds of pearls rewarded him for this short stay among the natives, all of which he treasured for the benefit of Queen Isabella, and he was satisfied that had the time been at his disposal he might have gathered here a rich cargo of pearls. Several circumstances, however, conspired to compel a resumption of the voyage. His ships were again in need of repairs; there was danger that the remainder of the stock of provisions intended for the colonists would become worthless if the voyage were prolonged; anxiety to learn the condition of affairs in Hispaniola; and above all, the condition of his health, demanded of Columbus that he should as soon as possible reach the colony and recruit from his exhaustion. His gout, too, was a constant torture, and he had suffered for weeks from an inflammation of the eyes that had almost destroyed his sight. In fact, so generally helpless had he become through these afflictions that he was incapacitated from duty, and turned over the charts, compass and sextant to other observers into whose hands he had to entrust the command of the vessels.

Columbus had intended to sail direct to Ozema, the point where he had ordered a colony planted for the development of the gold mines of Hayna. But after a five days' sail he reached the southern shore of San Domingo at a point one hundred and fifty miles west of his reckoning, which was due to the westward sweep of the Gulf Stream, which he had not noticed and therefore had not estimated its influence. The point of San Domingo where the squadron came to anchor was the Island of Beata, from which point the Admiral sent a messenger on shore with a letter for Don Bartholomew, whom he expected to find on the west coast of the island. It was believed that the courier could reach the mines of Hayna before a squadron could make its way to that part of the island, an opinion which proved to be correct ; for after struggling eastward for some days along the shore a Spanish caravel came in sight bearing Don Bartholomew and others, who on receipt of the message had sailed to meet Columbus. The ship of the Adelantado returned with the Admiral's squadron to Ozema, where they arrived on the 20th of August, 1498, three months to a day from the time he set sail from San Lucar. It was well for Columbus that the protracted voyage was at an end ; for the combined effects of old age (he was now about sixty-five years old), severe maladies and long exhaustion were upon him, and his condition was well calculated to excite the commiseration even of his enemies.



CHAPTER XVI.

CONDUCT OF THE COLONISTS DURING THE ABSENCE OF COLUMBUS.



URING the two and a half years in which Columbus had been absent from Hispaniola many startling incidents had occurred on that island, in which the colonists had acted both whimsical and tragic parts. A company combining so many heterogeneous characters ; the dissimilar qualities of pietist and criminal, the warring instincts of the cavalier and the peon, the adventuring sensualist and the avaricious hireling of cowardly men, could hardly give other expectation than explosive and adventitious results in opposition to the animating objects for which as a body they ostensibly contended. Some of these it is necessary should now be briefly noticed in order that the reader may be familiar with the new conditions with which Columbus had to contend upon his return.

From Don Bartholomew the Admiral learned the course of events which had transpired during his extended absence. Trouble, as might have been anticipated, had hovered over the island like a cloud. Bartholomew had conformed in all good will to the wishes and directions of his brother, but the work had been attended with turmoil and distraction at every step. But in pursuance of his instructions, the Adelantado had set out with a considerable force in the spring of 1496 to establish a fortress and colony at the gold mines of Hayna, leaving Don Diego Columbus in charge of the home government during his absence.

On reaching the gold region Bartholomew selected a suitable location and began the building of a fort, to which he gave the name of San Christobel, which was presently renamed by the Spaniards the Fortress of the Golden Tower. For three months he prosecuted the work of establishing this new settlement, though attended with many difficulties, chief of which was the scarcity of supplies, which the Indians no longer furnished with a liberal hand at the mere bidding of the Spaniards. The hard lesson had been forced upon the natives that their visitors were controlled by avarice, cupidity and cruelty, and they, therefore, became wary of dealing and communicating with men whom they had come to dread as evil spirits. The result was that provisions were only obtainable by purchase or through the exertions of foraging parties, and neither of these means could be depended upon to furnish such supplies as were urgently needed. The pressure of want, which at length approached near to a famine, compelled the Adelantado to leave ten men to hold the fortress of San Christobel while he departed with the main body of his colonists (about four hundred) to Vega Real, where he reckoned on procuring an abundance of provisions from the well-supplied towns of Guarionex.

COLLECTING THE TRIBUTE.

Don Bartholomew had another mission also in this part of the country. One clause of the orders received from the Admiral urged a prompt collection of the tribute which had been imposed upon the natives. Three months had now elapsed since the last payment was made, and another was due. Cibao and the Vega Real were the best fields for this harvest, and its exaction called for the presence of the Adelantado. In this service Don Bartholomew continued through the whole month of June, during which time he succeeded in gathering a goodly quantity of food through the assistance of Guarionex and his subordinate caciques.

In the following month (July) the three caravels which had been despatched from Spain under the command of Niño arrived, bringing a reenforcement of men and a large supply of provisions. But a considerable part of the latter had become spoiled during the voyage, a misfortune particularly serious in a community where the least pressure of scarcity produced murmur and sedition. It was by this ship that the Adelantado had received letters from the Admiral, directing him to found a fortress at the mouth of the Ozema River, and further requesting him to send to Spain as slaves such caciques and their subjects as had been concerned in the death of any of the colonists. On the return of the caravels, the Adelantado despatched three hundred Indian prisoners and three caciques under these instructions, which had formed the ill-starred cargoes about which Niño had made such absurd vaunting as though his ships were laden with gold, and which had caused such mortification, disappointment and delay to Columbus.

Having obtained a considerable supply of provisions Don Bartholomew returned to the fortress of San Christobel, and then to the Ozema to choose a site for the proposed seaport. The mouth of the river afforded secure and ample harborage, while the river ran through a beautiful and fertile country, where, it was said, fruits and flowers might be plucked from overhanging trees, while sailing on the stream. This vicinity was also the dwelling place of the female cacique who had conceived an affection for the young Spaniard, Miguel Diaz, who had enticed his countrymen to that part of the island.

FOUNDING OF SAN DOMINGO.

At the mouth of the river and on a commanding bank Don Bartholomew erected a fortress which was first called Isabella, but the name was afterwards changed to San Domingo, and was the origin of the city which still bears that name. Having made his fortress secure, the Adelantado left it in charge of twenty men, and with the rest of his force set out on an expedition to the country of Behechio, who was one of the principal caciques of the island. His province, known as Xaragua, comprised a greater part of the coast on the west end of the island, and was the most populous as well as most fertile district, also possessed of the most healthful climate in all Hispaniola. The manners of the people were hospitable and graceful, and being remote from all the fortresses they had had no close communication with the Spaniards, and had consequently remained free from the incursions of the white subjugators. With this cacique resided his sister, Anacaona, the widow of Caonabo, who, it will be remembered, so miserably perished on the ship during the return voyage of Columbus to Spain. She had taken refuge with her brother after the capture of her husband, and was most affectionately regarded by him. Her name in the Indian language signified "The Golden Flower," a title which well became her, since she is reputed to have been one of the most beautiful of women and possessed of a genius far in advance of that credited to her race. She was also of a poetic nature and to her is ascribed the composition of many legendary ballads which the natives chanted at their national festivals. And though she

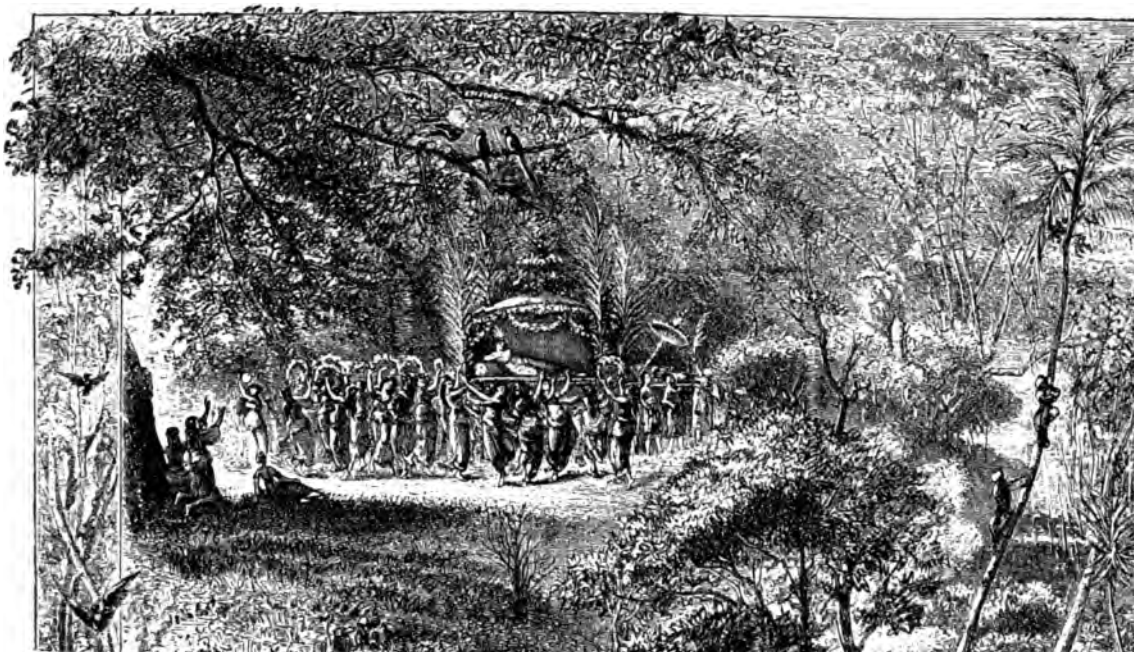
had felt the heavy arm of the cruel and rapacious Spaniards her nature was so mild that she entertained no hostility towards the white men, rather regarding them with admiration for what she believed was their superhuman power and intelligence. Perceiving the futility of resisting the superiority of the invaders, she counselled Behechio to conciliate and foster the friendship of the Spaniards, and it was this influence which probably induced the Adelantado to undertake his present expedition.

A WONDERFUL RECEPTION BY BEAUTIFUL WOMEN.

Don Bartholomew, however, did not neglect to employ the greatest precaution in his march to the dominion of Xaragua, and he used such imposing measures as had been found useful on former occasions. His cavalry he sent in advance, realizing the terror which a sight of horses inspired among the natives. These were followed by the foot soldiers, who advanced in martial array to the sound of drum and trumpet. After several days' march the Adelantado met the cacique Behechio, who had moved out of his capital with a great army armed with bows, arrows and lances, probably intending to offer opposition to an invasion of his domain; though if so, he lost his resolution before the formidable appearance of the Spaniards. First ordering his subjects to lay aside their weapons, he advanced and accosted Don Bartholomew in the most amicable manner, and assigned as his excuse for his appearing in such force his purpose to subjugate certain villages along the river. The Adelantado was equally reassuring of his peaceful intentions, and a friendship having been cemented by mutual protestations, the cacique dismissed his army and sent forward messengers to announce the approach of the Spaniards and to make preparations for their suitable reception. In this wise the two armies marched together until they came at length to a large town beautifully situated near the coast, at a bay called the Bight of Leogan. Many accounts had been given the Spaniards of the extraordinary salubrity and softness of the climate of Xaragua, in one part of which was placed the Elysian fields of Indian tradition. They had also heard from natives who had travelled in all parts of the island of the incomparable beauty and urbanity of the inhabitants, which had inclined them to favorable prepossessions that they were now to see confirmed in a most lavish hospitality. Knowledge of the approaching army having been heralded, thirty females, wives and daughters of Behechio, sallied forth, singing their weird ballads and waving palm branches in consonance with the dreamy but rhythmic motions of their dancing. The married and unmarried were distinguishable by the garments which they wore, the former being designated by aprons of embroidered cotton which extended from the shoulder to the knee, while the young women had no other covering than a fillet around the forehead and their thick and lustrous hair which fell in waves from their shoulders, and in many cases extended below the waist. Their forms might well be called Hebeic, while their motions were sylph-like, their skin extremely delicate and their complexions a clear amber brown.

A FAIRY SCENE.

Peter Martyr declares that the Spaniards when they beheld these beautiful women issuing forth from the green woods, almost imagined that they beheld the fabled dryads and native nymphs and fairies of the fields sung by the ancient poets—a delusion which might well be excused when we consider the Edenic surroundings, which were calculated to inspire the most practical and prosaic with poetic imaginations. As the women advanced they knelt before Don Bartholomew and then gracefully presented to him the green palms which they carried. They then divided, half on either side, to give place to Anacaona, who was now brought forward on a light litter or palanquin borne by six Indians, where she gracefully reposed until conducted into the presence of the Adelantado, when she advanced and



ANACAONA AND HER RETINUE OF MAIDENS.

gracefully saluted him. She had on no other garment than an apron of various colors, made of cotton, but around her head she wore a garland of red and white flowers, while a wreath of fragrant and flaming blossoms bedecked her neck and arms. Her charm of manners was only equalled by the grace of her person, both of which were well calculated to infatuate even a less impressionable cavalier than Don Bartholomew. The gallant governor accepted her salutation by kneeling in the most deferential manner and by taking her hand as a sign of his admiration and unalterable friendship. The ceremonies of reception having been concluded, the Spaniards were conducted to the house of Behechio, where an elegant banquet was served, consisting of a variety of sea and river fish, utias, a species of rodent resembling a rat, and a variety of fine fruits and roots, which were served in a manner that imparted delightful flavor to the meats. Another dish with which the Spaniards were thus for the first time made acquainted was the flesh of the Iguana, a reptile most repugnant in appearance, but which is regarded as a special delicacy among the Indians, who highly esteem it to this day. The Adelantado was the first of the Spaniards to taste of this



strange animal food. His stomach being well fortified by a fast of nearly twenty-four hours' duration, he found it to be highly palatable, and this opinion directly brought it into high repute among all the Spaniards.

A FATAL SHAM BATTLE.

At the conclusion of the banquet the Spaniards were disposed among the several dwelling houses of the inferior caciques, while six of the principal officers were lodged in the palace of Behechio. Here they were entertained for two days in the most hospitable manner, and during this time games and festivities were introduced for their entertainment. Among the amusements was a sham battle which, however, proved serious in its results, though this appears to have been the usual termination. A considerable body of Indians armed with bows and arrows was divided into two squadrons, and marching double-quick into the public square a skirmish began, which, though somewhat tame in the beginning, directly became so exciting that the contestants fought with such earnestness that four were killed outright while twice as many more were seriously wounded. This fatal consequence did not appear to abate but rather added to the interest and pleasure of the spectators, and the battle would have continued longer had not the Adelantado opposed his objections to such bloody sport and begged the cacique to terminate the exhibition.

At the conclusion of the two days' visit Don Bartholomew thought it proper to communicate to the cacique and Anacaona the real object of his visit. He began by acquainting them with the orders which he had received from his brother, which were to collect the tribute which had been imposed upon the tributary caciques of the island, for which purpose he had visited Behechio, under the protection of the Spanish sovereigns, to arrange a tribute to be paid by him in the manner most convenient and satisfactory.

Behechio was somewhat embarrassed by this demand, not so much by the terms in which the request was conveyed as the anticipations aroused by the sufferings which had been inflicted through the avidity of the Spaniards for gold upon the other caciques of the island. He, therefore, replied that he knew that gold was the object for which the Spaniards had visited his island and that many of the caciques had paid their tribute in that precious metal; but that, unfortunately for him, the value of his territory lay in its fertility rather than its products of gold, that his people had at no time followed mining, and that he doubted very much whether gold was discoverable in any part of his domain. To this, however, Don Bartholomew replied by affecting the most amiable manners and assuring the chief that he had no intention of imposing a burden beyond his ability to discharge; that while his sovereigns were pleased with tributes of gold, they were no less thankful for other products, and that they would esteem with equal favor tributes paid in cotton, hemp, cassava bread, or such other products as the country afforded. To this request the cacique gave a cheerful compliance and immediately issued orders to his subordinates commanding them to have the fields planted with cotton abundantly and thus prepare themselves to pay the necessary tribute in that staple. Thus by pacific measures and assurances Don Bartholomew had been able to accomplish that which others with a less generous mind were able to perform only through violence and rapine. Behechio had gracefully complied with the requirements and at the same time his friendship had been made secure, a procedure and result which had not characterized dealings between the Spaniards and natives in other provinces of the island.

POVERTY AND CRIME AT ISABELLA.

Don Bartholomew had not been many weeks absent from Fort Isabella on his visit to Behechio, nevertheless when he returned a sorry condition of affairs confronted him. Many

of the colonists had succumbed under climatic diseases, while a greater part were sick, and the lack of remedies or adequate medical treatment was emphasized by the insufficiency of food. The supplies brought out by Alonzo Niño had been consumed and no effort made to replenish them by cultivating the fields, which needed but the planting to bring forth in largest abundance. The Indians, unused to work and outraged by their oppressors, fled to the mountains, preferring to brave the hardships of the fastnesses than to remain in their luxurious valley subject to the inhumanities of the Spaniards. With famine staring them in the face and the miseries of disease afflicting them, the colonists turned their angry complainings against the Admiral, whom they charged with luxuriating at the Spanish palace, courting the Queen's favors with stories of Indian wealth, and aggrandizing himself with tales of his exploitations, leaving them to miserably perish of hunger through his neglect. Nor did Bartholomew wholly escape their censures, for they reckoned him as culpable, chiefly because he was brother to Christopher and likewise a foreigner.

This was the condition in which the Adelantado upon his return found the colony planted with so much hope at Isabella ; but instead of reprimanding or stopping to plead his defence he set resolutely to work to remedy the situation. First, he ordered the construction of two vessels which were to be used by the colony in sending its own messengers to Spain in case of necessity ; or, if urgency demanded, they might serve as a means of returning to Spain. Second, he caused all the sick and disabled to be removed to more salubrious districts in the interior, which served the double purpose of relieving the suffering, and at the same time dissipated the discouraging feeling which the appearance of the sick and dying had upon those not yet stricken down. Third, as a means of further promoting the security and comfort of the colony, Don Bartholomew conceived the enterprise of a general system of fortifications across the island. To this end five principal points were chosen, which were to constitute a chain of fortresses. Ninety miles from Isabella were laid the foundations of Fort La Esperanza ; twenty miles beyond that was placed Fort Santa Catalina ; twenty miles farther inland was Fort Magdalena, where Santiago now stands, and fifteen miles from this latter, in the valley of Vega Real, was located Fort Concepcion. By this provision safe means of travel by easy stages was provided between Isabella and the new town of San Domingo.

EFFECTS OF CONVERSION OF NATIVES TO CATHOLICISM.

The wise policy of Don Bartholomew was productive of excellent results and was followed by immediate advantages ; but while thus guarding against one source of mischief by giving employment to the unemployed, and making his rule more secure against the power of the confederated caciques, a new and equally serious trouble arose which was attended with calamitous consequences. The immediate cause was due to the zeal of a two priests, whose work was a reaction against the prelatic efforts of De Buyl. One of these friars was a hermit named Roman Pane, and the other a Franciscan proselyter known as Juan Borgoñon, both of whom entered the villages of the Vega Real bearing tidings of new religious faith to the simple natives, who were little prepared to understand a religion professed by men who had outraged every sense of justice and repaid hospitality by brutal license. But the labors of these two priests were attended with some success, for a single family of sixteen persons accepted the new faith, and being baptized, the head of this family received the title of Juan Mateo.

The first fruits of their enterprise bore no promise of a prolific or even second crop, so the friars turned their attention to another field. They rightly reckoned that the most direct way to the hearts of the natives was through their chiefs ; to gain the chieftain would

be to gain the whole tribe ; conversion might thus be undertaken after the manner which Charlemagne employed with the Saxons at the river Weser. Accordingly they directed all their efforts towards converting Guarionex, who being a man of flexible mind, was directly impressed by the mystery of the new faith, and according to the measure of his intelligence he embraced the new doctrine and learned to repeat the Paternoster, the Ave Maria, and the Credo.

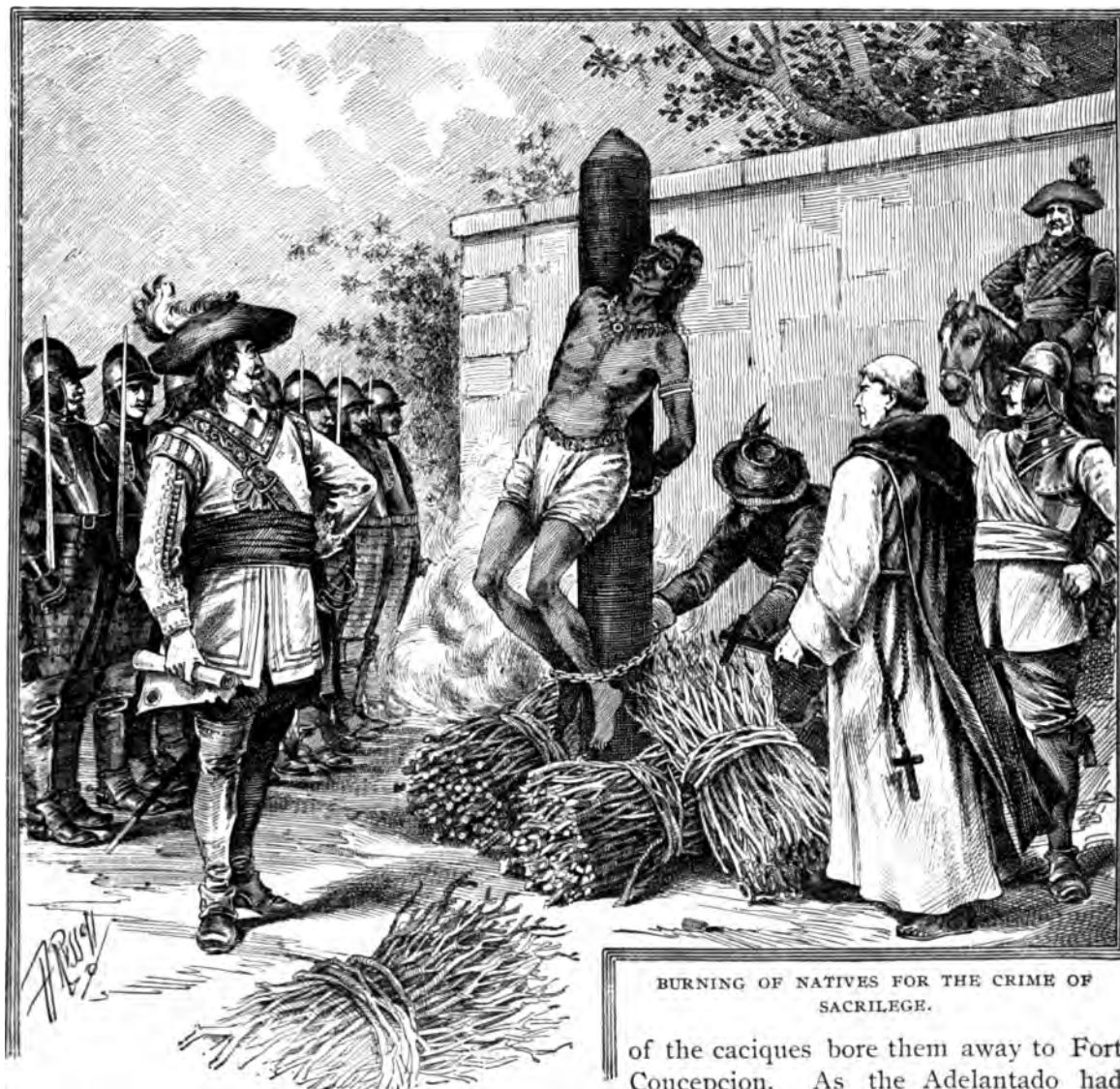
The news that Guarionex had been converted to the religion of the Spaniards quickly spread through the province of Vega Real, but the result was not what had been anticipated. The natives, who could not forget their wrongs, immediately construed the act as a renunciation of their cacique's nationality, and the subordinate chiefs were loud in their denunciations of his recreancy. But even while this charge of infidelity was sweeping through the villages of Vega Real an incident occurred which in a moment aroused all the ferocity and vengefulness in Guarionex's nature, and transformed him into the bitterest foe of everything that was Spanish. One of the officers at Fort Concepcion, which was scarcely four miles from the cacique's residence, contrived to ingratiate himself into the affections of Guarionex's favorite wife. The king was not long in discovering the guilty *liaison*, and his anger became at once as boundless as his wrongs, but helpless to avenge his disgrace he could only drive the priests from his presence and await his opportunity.

HORRIBLE PUNISHMENT INFLICTED FOR THE CRIME OF SACRILEGE.

Seeing that their efforts in Vega Real must thereafter be attended with danger, the two friars went into a neighboring province, taking Jean Mateo with them as interpreter, and there renewed their attempts to proselytize the natives. Here they erected a rude chapel to serve as a meeting house, and at the same time as a shelter for such new converts as they might be able to win. But scarcely was the chapel finished for service when some of Guarionex's subjects pulled it down, seized the images and emblems, which they buried in a neighboring field, and then returned and burned the ruins. This crime, in those days, called for a swift and awful retribution. Report of it was speedily made to Don Bartholomew at Isabella, who promptly ordered a judicial inquest to be made and the guilty punished by burning at the stake. Horrible to be related, several natives were adjudged guilty of the charge and suffered this inhuman punishment for their act.

Can we blame the Indians that this last shocking injustice, this barbarously cruel deed, nerved them to the desperate undertaking of destroying every hated Spaniard who had invaded and despoiled their peaceful homes? Guarionex, who was at once king and a principal sufferer, was besought to put himself at the head of a confederacy of all the tribes and lead them in one decisive attack on the foreigners. This proposition he gladly accepted, and it was arranged that the attack should be made on the next tribute day, when it was the custom of the natives to gather in great numbers. But though the conspiracy was admirably conceived, there was one difficulty which the natives had neglected to provide against. In the multifarious relations which had now come to exist between the Spaniards and native islanders, it was impossible to prevent disclosure of the plan if generally known among the Indians themselves, for several of the Spaniards had native women for wives, while many others sustained the most intimate relations with them. These matrimonial unions were particularly dangerous to a plot like the one concocted, and we are not surprised, therefore, that before it could be put into execution the Spaniards were apprised of their danger. The information being obtained, it was conveyed to Don Bartholomew by secreting a letter, in a hollow cane which

was carried by an Indian pretending to be dumb and foolish, and safely delivered. That officer, equal to any emergency, organized a large force which he despatched to the Vega Real district, and quietly distributed his soldiers among the villages where the inferior caciques had their respective residences. This being accomplished without exciting any uneasiness, on a fixed night and hour the soldiers invaded these houses and seizing fourteen



anticipated the Indians were terrified beyond expression by this abduction of their chiefs, and forgetting their revenge in this greater calamity they raised their voices in lamentations and beseechings pitiable to hear.

EXECUTION OF TWO OTHER NATIVES.

Don Bartholomew was present at the judicial inquest which followed, and by this examination he was made acquainted with all the causes and circumstances which led to the conspiracy. Feeling it imperative for the safety of the colony that an example should be made by a severe punishment of some of the leaders of the plot, he ordered

the execution of two of the most vindictive chiefs, but magnanimously pardoned all the rest. Nor would his sense of justice permit the wrong that had been done to Guarionex to go unrevenged, and accordingly the Adelantado proceeded with stern measures against the Spaniard who had violated the sanctity of the cacique's home, but historians fail to mention the punishment that was inflicted. The clemency and justice of Don Bartholomew subdued the anger in Guarionex's heart, and that chief now earnestly exhorted his people to henceforth cultivate the friendship of the Spaniards, advice which was sincerely followed, and tranquillity was thus happily restored without further effusion of blood.

After this incident the Adelantado repaired to Xaragua with many of his soldiers, to receive the quarterly tribute which Behechio had notified him was ready for delivery. His reception on this second visit was equally as cordial as it was on the first, and the occasion was made one of much rejoicing. The natives gave an entertainment and great feast to their visitors, and were in turn amused by the Spaniards, who had brought up one of their ships to receive the tribute of cotton, which was sufficient to make a large cargo. The guns of the vessel were fired, to the great alarm of the natives, but they were reassured by acts of kindness extended by the Adelantado, who distributed presents among them and then had his soldiers execute manœuvres to manifest their skill in arms.

THE REBELLION OF ROLDAN.

While Don Bartholomew was absent in Xaragua a rebellion was incited by a Spaniard named Francisco Roldan, whose ambition had inspired him with the belief that he might take advantage of the disaffection of the colonists, and by subverting the authority of the Adelantado and Don Diego raise himself to the gubernatorial dignity. In pursuance of this mad purpose he succeeded in winning to his aid a considerable faction, and then detaching himself with forty well-armed followers from the main body, he boldly proclaimed his intention to launch the remaining vessel and depart from the country for other fields, or take up his quarters in another part of the island. To prevent this act Don Bartholomew, who had now returned to Isabella, assembled seventy of the soldiers who remained loyal to him and prepared to give the conspirator battle. His force being as yet too weak to hazard an engagement, Roldan drew off and entered upon a systematic effort to attach the caciques to his fortunes, by promising to free them from the exactions laid upon them by their oppressors. But in these efforts he did not succeed; whereupon he determined to proceed to Xaragua and there set up an independent government. Taking advantage of the Adelantado's absence from Isabella, he suddenly made a foray upon the place, broke open the magazine and supplied his followers with arms and ammunition therefrom. He then attempted to launch one of the vessels drawn upon the beach, but his efforts were in vain, and fearing some surprise if he remained longer at Isabella, he returned to the interior with the purpose of putting into execution some strategy whereby he might gain possession of the person of Don Bartholomew, who was at Fort Concepcion, afraid to oppose the rebel with the restless few who composed the garrison. In a day after leaving Isabella Roldan appeared before Fort Concepcion, and vaunting his loyalty to the Spanish sovereigns, used every artifice to corrupt the garrison, who for a while manifested a disposition to abandon their allegiance to the Adelantado. This, indeed, they would have no doubt done had not the sagacious governor met the inducements held out by Roldan with similar promises of reward for their fidelity.

But though he was unable to corrupt the garrison at Concepcion, Roldan made headway by enlisting the co-operation of several chiefs, who supplied him generously with provisions and made the payments of tribute to him instead of to the lawful authority.

In this contention the colony was brought to the verge of ruin, nor can we foresee how they would have escaped destruction had not the critical situation been relieved at this juncture by the arrival at the port of Isabella of two vessels despatched under command of Pedro Fernandez Coronal with supplies, by order of the Queen, as already related. This happy event occurred on the 3d of February, 1498, and was the means not only of saving the colony from the disasters of rebellion, but Coronal brought, besides supplies and men, a commission confirming Don Bartholomew's title as governor, thus relieving him of whatever cloud that rested upon the title conferred by the Admiral.

Considering that the colony had already suffered all that it could well bear, Don Bartholomew, in his anxiety to reunite his men, sent Coronal with a pacific message to Roldan, requesting that he would submit to his authority, and promising pardon for all past offences; but Roldan rejected these overtures, and feeling secure in



ARRIVAL OF THE SUPPLY SHIPS.

his plans he sowed the seeds of intrigue among the caciques, and then departed for Xaragua to take up his residence in that sensual paradise which had been the objective point of all his promises.

A CONSPIRACY TO MASSACRE THE SPANIARDS.

The machinations of Roldan had been so well laid that Guarionex, who had been accounted as faithful to the authority of Don Bartholomew, organized a conspiracy for the capture of Fort Concepcion, being instigated thereto by Roldan's agreements to extend protection and relieve him from his vassalage to the usurping Spaniards. It was arranged to assault the fort on the night of a full moon, but by some mistake an impetuous chief with a small following began the attack on the night preceding the appointed time, and they were easily repulsed by soldiers quartered in the village, while the garrison were thus timely put upon their guard. The chief who had thus unluckily anticipated the plans of the confederated caciques fled to Guarionex for protection, but that King was so incensed at his hasty conduct that he struck him dead upon the spot. Don Bartholomew now saw the futility of temporizing any longer with the conspirators, and having a strong force under his command, he set out first in pursuit of Guarionex, who taking warning by the fate that had overtaken other chiefs who had opposed the Spaniards, fled with his family to the mountains of Ciguay, and there sought the aid of a cacique named Mayobanex, who lived at Cape Cabron, thirty miles from Isabella. This chief would not withhold his friendship in

the hour of greatest need, and therefore not only gave Guarionex and his handful of followers an asylum but promised to protect them to the last extremity.

DESTRUCTION OF INDIAN VILLAGES.

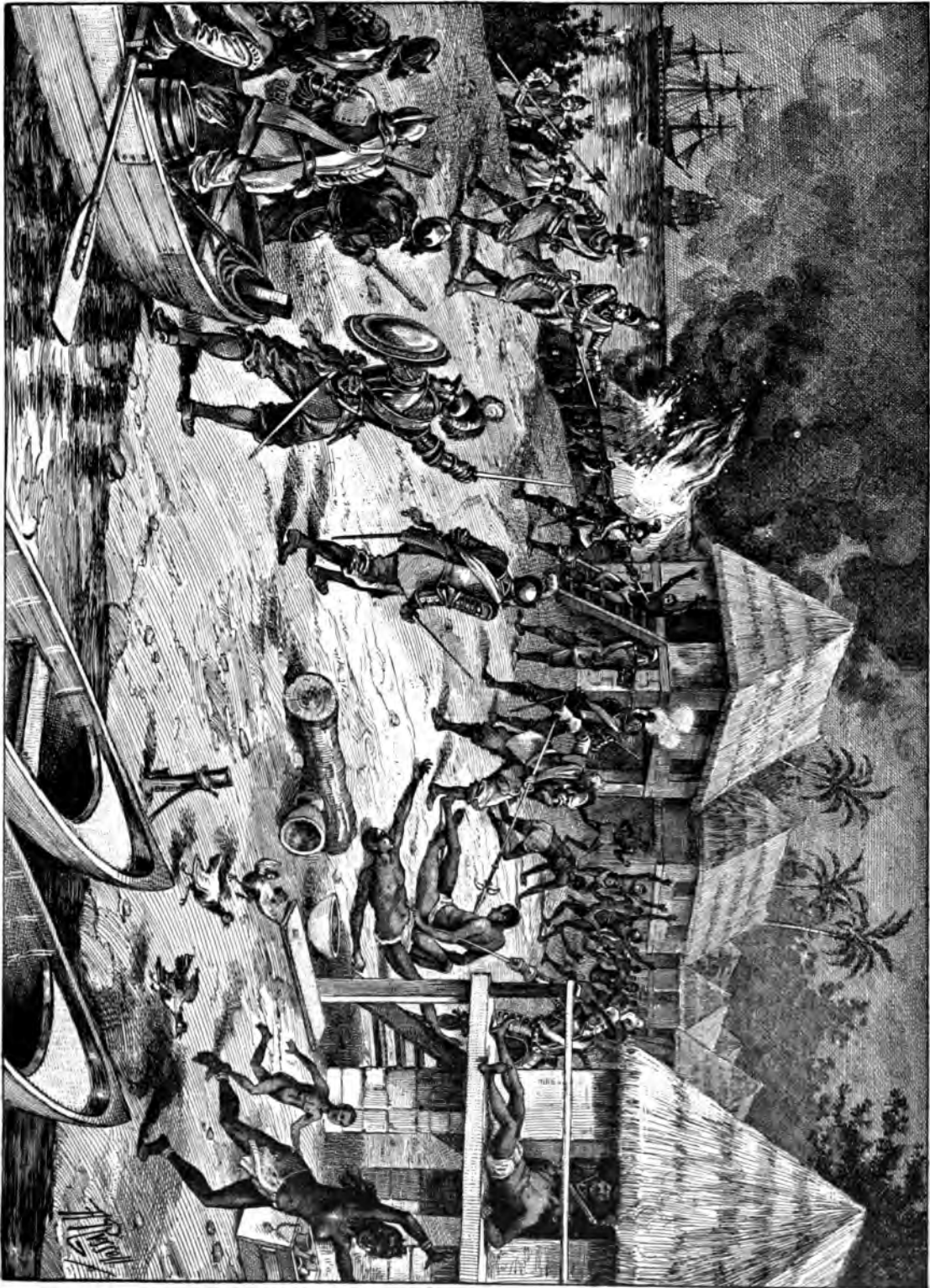
By forming a junction with Mayobanex, who had a considerable force of hardy native soldiers, Guarionex was able to vex the Spaniards by cutting off straggling parties and destroying villages; annoyances which Don Bartholomew resolved to prevent by sending a company of one hundred and fifty men into the mountain fastnesses to punish the guerillas. His advance was noted by Indian spies, and a big native army was gathered that hung upon his flank, but was concealed by intervening hills and dense vegetation until the time to strike was at hand. This opportunity was presented when the Spaniards began fording a stream of swift running water, and when everything indicated that they were least expecting an attack. In a moment six thousand hideously painted savages rushed out from their ambush and let fly a shower of arrows and lances. which wounded several of the Spaniards notwithstanding their armor. But the Indians were too timid to follow up their advantage, and retreated at the first fire of the enemy. The Spaniards pushed on up the valley towards Cabron, halting from time to time to repel the sorties of the Indians, who would rush down within arrow range and discharging a volley would retire precipitately to their fastnesses, seldom doing any great mischief, however.

At length the Adelantado approached within less than a mile of Cabron, where he halted and sent forward a messenger to Mayobanex, demanding of him the surrender of Guarionex, promising him pardon and friendship if the demand was complied with, but threatening a direful vengeance if it was refused. With Spartan-like courage and a fidelity which may even amaze the civilized world, Mayobanex returned this reply: "Tell the Spaniards that they are bad men, cruel and tyrannical; usurpers of the territories of others and shedders of innocent blood; I do not desire the friendship of such men. Guarionex is a good man; he is my friend; he is my guest; he has fled to me for refuge; I have promised to protect him; I will keep my word."

Don Bartholomew could be stern when occasion appeared to him to justify vigorous measures, and seeing that further parley meant defeat of his purposes, he ordered the village to be set on fire, and then threatened Mayobanex with a still more terrible vengeance if he remained obstinate in his refusal to surrender to him the rebellious Guarionex. His subjects, alarmed, besought him to comply with this demand, as the safety of their homes depended upon it; but however strong the pressure, his friendship for the unhappy chief was still stronger, and he vowed to defend his guest to the last, even though it should cost him his kingdom and his life.

CAPTURE OF THE REBELLIOUS CHIEFS.

The torch of the Spaniards was now applied to all the villages, while soldiers were sent to hunt down the two fraternal chiefs and their subjects. Abandoning the smoking ruins of their homes, the caciques and their followers fled to the mountains, where they were remorselessly pursued until at last two Ciguayans were captured, and under threats of death were forced to pilot the Spaniards to a cave in which Mayobanex had taken refuge. The unhappy chief was taken by surprise, together with his family and a sister who had left her husband in a neighboring province to share the fortunes of her miserable brother. Her captivity was soon reported to her husband, who, loving her tenderly, visited the Adelantado and with prayerful entreaties besought him to release her, offering his allegiance and that of his subjects for her restoration. To these pleadings Don Bartholomew could not turn a



DON BARTHOLOMEW'S CRUEL DESTRUCTION OF INDIAN VILLAGES.

deaf ear, for his compassion being aroused he restored her to her now overjoyed husband, an act which brought him a generous return in the fulfilment of all the promises of the cacique.

Soon after this Guarionex was driven from his retreat by the pangs of hunger, and was betrayed by some Ciguayans, who regarded him as the author of all their miseries. He was by this means captured by a party of lurking Spaniards and carried to Fort Concepcion. This being his third offense, Guarionex expected nothing less than an extreme penalty; but the Adelantado mercifully considered the causes which had led him into rebellion and again extended to him the fullest pardon, though he regarded it as prudent to detain both caciques for a time at Fort Concepcion as hostages to insure the fidelity of their subjects.

This was the condition of affairs in the colony, which had been restored to a degree of tranquillity, with Roldan a fugitive, when Columbus returned, after an absence of nearly thirty months, to resume command.



CHAPTER XVII.

THE CONSPIRACY OF ROLDAN ASSUMES MORE THREATENING PROPORTIONS.



VII, flourishes where virtue would perish from inanition. Circumstances more frequently favor the wrong than they encourage the right, because the wicked passions of men beget in them a cunning to turn even the most beneficent conditions to their advantage, thus extracting the bane of mischief from the elixir of rectitude. These observations were strikingly verified by the fortune which assisted the traitorous acts of Roldan, since one circumstance after another occurred as if by some maleficent spirit's direction to promote his infamous designs.

When Columbus returned to Hispaniola his physical condition, which rendered him almost helpless, was not more deplorable than that of the colonists. Insurrection, rebellion and their attendant evils had left the Spaniards in a sorry and wretched plight, out of which they were not to be brought before greater suffering had been experienced. A heart less strong than Columbus' would have lost all hope and abandoned further effort to establish a permanent settlement in the new world of his discovery. In every fort and station there were famine and insubordination; the mines at Hayna were no longer productive; every industry languished; the Indian villages were in ruins, while the natives, driven to the last extremity by their oppressors, had abandoned their fields and escaped to the mountains; they were at peace now, but it was the peace that simulates death or hopelessness; more than all this, the flower of the Spanish troops were in rebellion, thus dividing the strength of the colonists and leaving them a readier prey to the miseries that were at hand.

To a man almost blinded by ophthalmia and racked by the tortures of gout, as was Columbus, the picture was one of inexpressible sadness, but in such an emergency inaction meant destruction, so, enfeebled though he was by physical and mental afflictions, Columbus aroused all his energies to bring order out of this chaos of misfortune. His first duty was to ratify the acts of his brother Don Bartholomew, and then to inform himself fully respecting the rebellion of Roldan, and adopt measures, if possible, to punish the traitor; but this alas! he was not destined to accomplish.

Carrying out his original intentions Roldan had taken up his residence in the province of Xaragua, where, not knowing his defection, Behechio received him with the same hospitality he had shown towards the Adelantado. In this delightful retreat Roldan and his followers indulged their idle and sensual appetites, free from all restraints, accounting themselves as the most fortunate of mortals, since Behechio supplied all their wants.

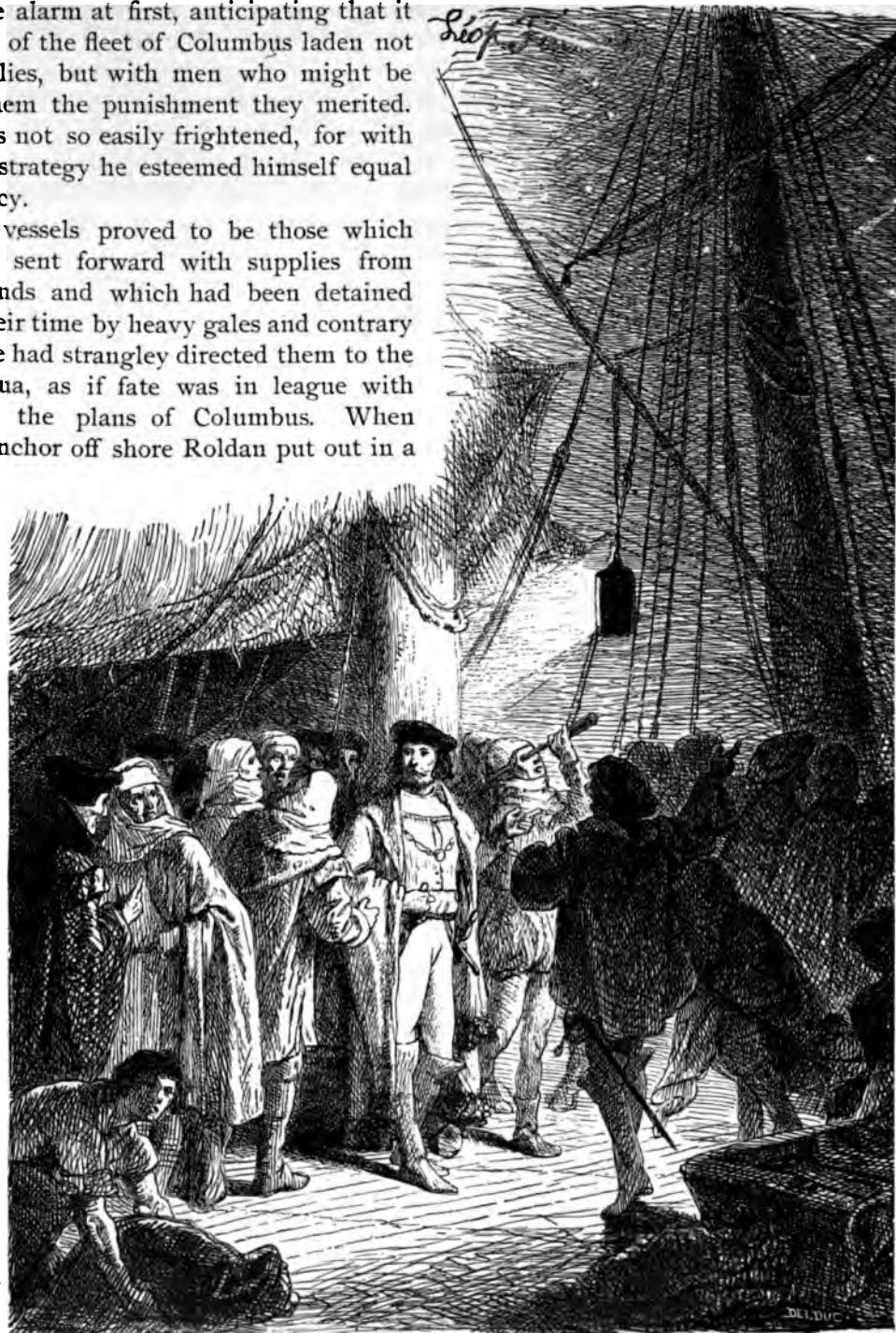
THE REBELS UNEXPECTEDLY RECEIVE REINFORCEMENTS.

Within a week after Columbus had returned to Hispaniola some of Roldan's subjects, while walking along the beach, descried three vessels making towards the shore, which

gave them some alarm at first, anticipating that it might be a part of the fleet of Columbus laden not only with supplies, but with men who might be sent to give them the punishment they merited. But Roldan was not so easily frightened, for with his resource of strategy he esteemed himself equal to any emergency.

The three vessels proved to be those which Columbus had sent forward with supplies from the Canary Islands and which had been detained long beyond their time by heavy gales and contrary winds. Fortune had strangely directed them to the coast of Xaragua, as if fate was in league with evil to oppose the plans of Columbus. When they came to anchor off shore Roldan put out in a boat to welcome the Spaniards to the New World. A fellow of excellent address, he soon convinced the captains of the fleet of his trustworthiness and that he was in authority in that part of the island. Therefore, by representing his needs he procured from the officers swords, cross-bows, lances and a variety of military stores, at the same time craftily distributing many of his men among the vessels' crews to wean them from their

allegiance to Columbus and to induce them to accept the free and delightful life which he had to offer them in Xaragua. When we consider that nearly all the men who had



ROLDAN SEEKING RECRUITS AMONG THE NEW ARRIVALS.

shipped on the vessels were criminals, and therefore possessed of the basest instincts, we cannot wonder that the flattering proposals made by Roldan's men readily influenced them to desert and join the rebels.

For three days Roldan entertained the crews before Alonzo Sanchez de Carvajal, commodore of the fleet, discovered his real designs, at which time the mischief was consummated, for the rebel had received his supplies and had planted the seeds that were to bring him a great harvest. Contrary winds had also served Roldan beneficently, for the ships being unable to beat up the coast Carvajal was persuaded to send a large number of the people on board overland to the settlement at Isabella. In pursuance of this intent Juan Antonio Colombo landed with forty well-armed men, who, however, no sooner gained the shore than thirty-two of them went off and joined the rebels, nor would they listen to any overtures from Colombo to return to duty.

Unable to accomplish anything on shore, Colombo returned to the ships and contrived, after great danger and delay, to bring the vessels to Isabella, though not until one was badly injured by running on to a bar, and a larger part of the provisions was spoiled.

TEMPORIZING WITH A REBEL.

The next six months were spent in a fruitless effort by Columbus and his associates to conciliate Roldan and induce him to renew his allegiance to the lawful authority. But having tasted the sweets of gratified ambition he was unwilling to surrender any of his advantages, unless it were done in the acquirement of greater ones. His power had become superior to that of Columbus himself, and in the success of his rebellion he maintained that the Admiral should practise that condescension which he had himself required.

In the meantime, while these negotiations were being carried on there were other things to worry and vex the already anguished spirits of the Admiral. He had prepared a lengthy report of all his explorations and discoveries in the gulf of Paria, not omitting to send to his sovereigns a gilded representation of the vast wealth which might be acquired by collecting pearls which were to be found in the greatest abundance and finest variety on the coast of South America. But this report he did not conclude without describing the insurrection of Roldan and depicting the deplorable condition of affairs which had been precipitated through the rebellion of that ambitious man and an uprising of the natives. It was particularly unfortunate for Columbus that it was necessary he should make such a report, because his attack on the hireling of Fonseca at the time of his departure had materially prejudiced him in the estimation of the sovereigns, while the repeated complaints and revolts served as a further proof to them of the charge that he was often actuated to imprudent acts by an uncontrollable temper. In consequence of this feeling the reply which he received from Ferdinand and Isabella was couched in most formal language, plainly intimating their waning confidence in his judgment and stability.

Roldan had been induced, through the good offices of Carvajal, to hold an interview with Columbus, at which such concessions were made by the Admiral that the rebellious officer had agreed to take passage with his disaffected followers for Spain. To accomplish this three caravels were made ready, after considerable delay, in which the rebels embarked. But they had scarcely gotten out of the harbor of Isabella before a storm arose which drove them violently on the shore and compelled them for the time being to abandon the purpose and return home. This unfortunate accident seemed to prove that the elements were opposing the designs of Columbus, since his hope of ridding himself of the rebellious element of the colony was thus suddenly destroyed; as upon regaining Isabella Roldan reconsidered his determination to return to Spain and renewed his demands for greater

concessions, to which, notwithstanding their injustice, Columbus was compelled to yield. As a price of peace Roldan received a title to a considerable tract of land in the immediate district of Isabella and another in the valley of the Vega Real, and was likewise appointed, under the pressure of his insistence, alcalde of el Esperanza.

OJEDA'S EXPEDITION TO SOUTH AMERICA.

Upon receipt of the reports and letters of Columbus the Spanish sovereigns, influenced by the representations of Fonseca, who lost no opportunity to impair the authority of Columbus, permitted the fitting out of four caravels under Alonzo de Ojeda, who had formerly been under great obligations to the Admiral but was now a creature of the Spanish secretary. In violation of the exclusive prerogatives which had been granted to Columbus, Ojeda sailed under the sovereign permit to the Gulf of Pearls, with the ostensible purpose of verifying the discoveries reported by Columbus, but really intending to profit thereby if he should find his statements to be true regarding the great quantity of pearls which he located there. While Ojeda failed to procure any considerable quantity of the pearls, he did succeed in gathering some gold and a large number of slaves, with which he returned to Spain; after which successful voyage, emboldened by the protection of Fonseca, he set sail for San Domingo with the purpose of hurrying the downfall of Columbus by seizing his power and person.

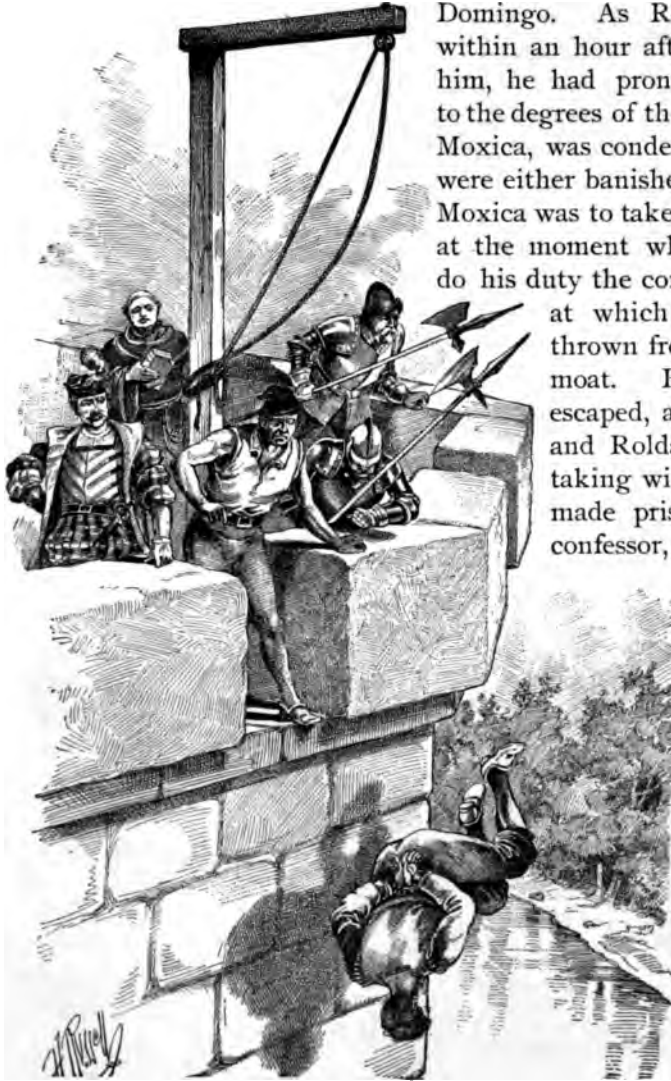
Ojeda appeared off the coast of Hispaniola at a time when the affairs of the colony were in a most abject state, and putting into the port of Yaquimo, a few miles from Isabella, he began to industriously circulate reports among such of the colonists as he could find to lend a willing ear to his pretenses that Columbus was no longer in favor at court, and that the Queen was then in declining health beyond the hope of recovery, so that henceforth Fonseca, his patron, was practically the true authority controlling in the Indies. The old companions of Roldan applauded this proceeding and a large number joined him, thus complicating the situation more than it had ever been before. In the face of all these intrigues and evil instigations, having their origin apparently near the Spanish court, the courage of Columbus, which had until then been undaunted, suddenly failed him. He foresaw that the purpose of his enemies was to remove him by assassination if necessary, and the instinct of self-preservation impelled him for the moment to escape with his brothers in a caravel from the rage of those who designed his destruction.

But in this darkest hour of his dejection his star of hope suddenly shone through a rift in the cloud of his despair, caused by a report which was brought him that a rivalry had sprung up between Roldan and Ojeda, the outcome of which could not fail to prove of advantage to the cause of justice; for it is a trite and ancient saying that, "When thieves fall out, honest men have their dues." Roldan, perceiving that his power was rapidly diminishing by the alienation of his followers through the intrigues of Ojeda, determined to unreservedly sustain in the future the authority of the Admiral, whence his power of alcalde or chief-justice was derived. So employing all his audacity and cunning as well as physical force, after a series of curious incidents he finally compelled Ojeda to take to his ships and put to sea.

A FIGHT FOR THE HAND OF A NATIVE PRINCESS.

At this time another event occurred which in the end proved of service to the colonists and assisted greatly in the restoration of the power which Columbus had lost. One of Roldan's chiefs living in Xaragua, becoming infatuated with the daughter of Queen Anacaona, desired to marry her and applied to the Church to legitimate the union. Roldan, however, appears also to have been enamored of the beautiful princess, and took

steps towards preventing the marriage, which so inflamed the young officer that he hatched a plot against the life of the chief-justice. Accordingly he fomented a rebellion, and surrounding himself with a few bold spirits who had given a solemn vow to perform his orders, he formulated the desperate plan of seizing Roldan and putting out his eyes. The plot was fortunately discovered in time to avert the crime, and some of the conspirators being taken and adjudged guilty of the charge, they were arrested and carried to San



HURLING MOXICA FROM THE BATTLEMENTS.

Domingo. As Roldan was himself the chief-justice, within an hour after the time they were brought before him, he had pronounced their condemnation according to the degrees of their culpability. The leader, Adrien de Moxica, was condemned to death, while his accomplices were either banished or imprisoned. The execution of Moxica was to take place from the top of the fortress, but at the moment when the executioner was prepared to do his duty the condemned man repulsed his confessor,

at which Roldan ordered the wretch to be thrown from the top of the battlements into the moat. But others of the conspirators had escaped, and these Columbus on the one hand and Roldan on the other pursued with vigor, taking with them a priest in order that those made prisoners might have the benefit of a confessor, for in each instance they were destroyed upon the spot where they were captured. These heroic measures not only ended the conspiracy but put an end to the rebellion which had been fomented by Guevara, the aspirant for the hand of the young princess. At the same time, by conceding to the demands made by Roldan, Columbus had reestablished himself at the head of the colony, and was taking new courage, when report reached him of the machinations of his enemies at the court of Spain, who had not yet abandoned their intent of depriving him of his power and bringing him to judgment on the charges which had

been preferred, as previously described. The intent of these enemies, however, had been carefully veiled up to the time of putting their designs into execution, so that Columbus, while learning that some evil was hatching, had no intimation of the real measures concerted against him.

COLUMBUS SUPERSEDED BY BOBADILLA.

The result of these machinations was that the sovereigns, through the advice of Fonseca, sent a Commissary to Hispaniola in the person of Francisco de Bobadilla, a man high in the

esteem of Fonseca and who likewise enjoyed the confidence of the court. On the 23d of August, 1500, while Columbus was engaged in enlarging the fortress of Concepcion, two caravels made their way through the mouth of the Ozema River. Don Diego Columbus, thinking that the caravels brought the eldest son of the Admiral, he having written him to come, despatched a boat to inquire if he was on board. The reply brought back was that



the vessels had come bringing a Commissary of the sovereigns to judge the Roldan rebels and that young Diego had not embarked. Most unfortunately for Columbus, as the vessels put into port Bobadilla, who was a hasty, harsh and vindictive man, and withal a blind tool who had been well posted by the malignant Fonseca, saw two gibbets on the beach, from which were suspended two bodies that had been executed the day previous. This sight in his mind justified the charges of cruelty brought against the Admiral, and he was thus the better prepared to give his judgment in opposition to the advice or even

evidence which might be presented by Columbus.

Bobadilla and his suite disembarked and on the following day attended mass, where at the conclusion of the services he ordered his letters patent to be read, authorizing him to investigate the late troubles that had arisen in the island. Diego Columbus, who was present, replied that the viceroy, his brother, had titles superior to this commission and should be consulted in whatever action it was deemed advisable to take. But in the most imperious and insolent manner Bobadilla silenced Diego, and impertinently arrogated to himself rights far beyond what his letters credited him with, and his actions thereafter were those of a lawless and supercilious blackguard. He seized the fortress, took possession of the prisoners and declared his purpose of sending the viceroy and his brothers in chains to Spain. These high-handed outrages

were reported to the Admiral by a messenger, upon receipt of which information he left Concepcion and proceeded to a village called Bonao, from which place he wrote to Bobadilla, felicitating him on his arrival, but requested him not to take any more steps before he had carefully studied the situation. At the same time he assured



BOBADILLA CASTS COLUMBUS INTO A DUNGEON.

the Commissary that he was willing to resign to him the reins of government and would cheerfully furnish him all the information that he might need to enable him to make a true inquiry concerning the rebellion and unhappy incidents that had so disturbed the island during the past year. To this communication Bobadilla returned no answer, but continued his arrogant pretensions to the viceroyalty, to the subversion of all rightful authority over the people.

The impudent audacity of Bobadilla, who had acted the part of a pirate rather than an accredited officer of dignity, at length aroused the enmity not only of the friends of Columbus, but of some of the caciques who remained loyal in their allegiance to the Admiral, and fearing that some concerted movement would be made to resent his rude assumption of absoluteness, Bobadilla finally concluded to employ persuasive and gentler means in bringing Columbus to submit to his authority. Accordingly he commissioned a priest to proceed to Bonao and there inform the Admiral of his having fallen into disfavor with his sovereigns, and to show him the letters of credence under which he had come to Hispaniola to assume direction of the affairs on that island.

COLUMBUS IS FETTERED AND WITH HIS BROTHERS THROWN INTO A DUNGEON.

Having received these letters and a request to come to San Domingo, Columbus set out on horseback without servants and clothed in the costume of a Franciscan. But when he reached the city he was immediately arrested and incarcerated in the fortress, and that his humiliation might be the greater his feet were shackled with iron fetters. After perpetrating this outrage Bobadilla ordered Columbus to address a letter to his brother, Don Bartholomew, ordering him to relinquish his authority in Xaragua and come to San Domingo without his soldiers. Complying with this demand the Adelantado had scarcely arrived at the residence of the viceroyalty when he was likewise seized, with his brother Don Diego, and cast into prison—the three being isolated to prevent communication and all fettered alike. Insufficiently clothed and compelled to lie upon a cold stone pavement, Columbus suffered excruciating agony from rheumatism and twinges of gout which had not left him free from pain for a period of nearly two years. But he was uncomplaining, in the hope and belief that his wrongs would be redressed when he should return to Castile and could present his case to the sovereigns.

Bobadilla having now the three Columbus brothers secure in a dungeon, began to inquire into the charges which had been preferred by summoning to the inquest all the rebels, ringleaders, criminals and prisoners who had been punished by the Admiral, the Adelantado and Don Diego for their crimes. The result might have been readily foreseen. They were found guilty upon all the charges. The malignancy of Bobadilla did not, however, extend to the execution of his prisoners, as Columbus had anticipated, but still shackled he sent them on board the caravel *Gorda* for transportation to Spain, with a lengthy report justifying their condemnation and recommending them to the severest punishment. The care of Columbus and his brothers was committed to Alonzo de Vallejo, with Andreas Martin as master of the vessel, which departed early in October for the shores of Spain.

The spectacle of the discoverer of a New World, who had passed through ordeals which few men in this life are called upon to bear, whose acts had conferred upon the world the largest possible measure of benefits, was one so grievous to behold that the sympathies of Vallejo and Martin were aroused, and they volunteered to remove the chains which shackled the feet of the aged Admiral. But this alleviation of his injuries Columbus refused, as he did not wish to appear to contravene the orders given by the representative of his sovereigns, preferring to bear the pain and anguish of mind and body which his galling fetters produced rather than find relief through an infringement of the orders under which he was being transported.

In these afflictions Columbus was no doubt sustained by a feeling that he had been called upon to bear the revilings and the persecutions of those in authority, that his great mission might thus become prominent in the world's estimation, a feeling which he betrayed in a

letter which he wrote to a friend of the Queen, in which he appears to liken himself unto John and those of the Prophets who had passed through the dark valley of persecution and thence upwards with the world's applause to the sublime heights of heavenly reward.

RECEPTION OF COLUMBUS BY ISABELLA.

The voyage to Spain was blessed with such favorable winds that the passage was accomplished in five weeks, a much quicker trip than had ever before been made; nor



COLUMBUS SENT TO SPAIN IN CHAINS.

was it attended by any unpleasantness of rough sea or foul weather. So careful in his attention to the wants of Columbus had been the master of the *Gorda* that, excepting the inconvenience of his fetters, the Admiral had fared exceedingly well, and when the ship came to anchor in the Bay of Cadiz, on the 20th of November, Captain Martin despatched a confidential messenger to Granada, where the sovereigns were then residing, with a letter from Columbus to the nurse or preceptress of the infant Don Juan, who was his particular friend and in the highest confidence of the Queen. This letter, which rehearsed all his difficulties and wrongs in San Domingo, was borne with such celerity that it reached its destination considerably in advance of the condemnation proceedings and reports of Bobadilla; and as Columbus had anticipated, after reading the letter the nurse placed it in the hands of the Queen. The indignation and grief of Isabella was so great over the insufferable wrongs that had been put upon the viceroy that she sent a courier with all haste to her officer of marine in Cadiz,

commanding him to forthwith release Columbus and his brothers. The sovereigns also joined in a letter to the Admiral, deploring the indignities that had been put upon him, and gave assurances that what he had suffered was through the unwarranted acts of a representative unfortunately chosen. But their reparation for the offences of Bobadilla was not confined to mere expressions of regard and mortification, for desiring to demonstrate their feeling by substantial tokens, they sent Columbus a purse of two thousand

ducats (equivalent to more than eight thousand dollars at the present day) to remedy the destitution in which he had been placed, and accompanied the gift with an invitation to attend at court when his convenience would allow.

As soon as he was thus freed and restored to honor the Admiral prepared to accept the invitation of his sovereigns and visit them at Granada. By one of those remarkable reactions to which his mind was subject he chose to prepare himself in state for the journey. He purchased an elegant court dress and cloak in the style of the Spanish nobility, and set out with attendants suitable for a man of noble rank. He arrived at Granada on the 17th of December, 1500, and was received by the King and Queen in the hall of the Alhambra.

A TOUCHING MEETING WITH THE QUEEN.

The scene was worthy of the poet's song and the painter's brush. The hair of the Admiral was now white as the almond blossom. His aspect was venerable in the highest



COLUMBUS RECEIVED BY ISABELLA.

degree ; but the furrows of grief and care were deeply ploughed in his aged face. The manner of the sovereigns, especially of the Queen, was as gracious, in fact more condescending than it had ever been before, for it is narrated that when Isabella saw him approach the tears coursed down her face and the woman could scarcely be restrained by the Queen. As for Columbus, his feelings quite overcame him and he sank down weeping, sobbing at the feet of her whose friendship for more than a decade of years had been his chief defence and hope in the day of extremity and despair.

A long and interesting interview was now held between the discoverer and their Majesties. Their bearing towards him and their words of cheer soon revived him from despondency, and he entered with spirit and animation upon an account of the incidents and results of his third voyage, and upon a justification of his purposes and policy in the government of Hispaniola.

The reaction in his favor, which occurred all over Spain immediately the news of his arrival in chains had been spread, as well as his appearance and the wrongs he had suffered, predisposed the King and Queen so greatly in his favor that they refused to receive and read the report or protocol of Bobadilla. For a while they showered every possible attention upon him, and gave him a room in the palace, where he was permitted to exercise all the freedom and dignity of the most noble officers of the realm. Though Isabella was particularly anxious to make amends for the evil conduct of which he had been the chief sufferer through the unadvised appointment of Bobadilla, after the first few weeks of special favor Columbus found that opportunities were not yet open for him to prosecute to the end the enterprises which he still had in his mind.

REPROVED BY THE QUEEN.

It is more than probable that Ferdinand prejudiced the Queen more or less against her natural inclination to reconfirm him in the governorship of Hispaniola, of which he had been deprived by the usurpation of Bobadilla, for, when Columbus approached her with a request for the renewal of her patronage for a fourth expedition, she reminded him of some of the cruelties which he had inaugurated in direct opposition to her wishes, if not commands. She accused him of having subjected many of the natives to slavery, and of his insistence in continuing the slave traffic, which she had hoped to end by explicit commands; that in his treatment of the Indians of San Domingo he should at all times be actuated by a merciful disposition and regard for their temporal as well as their spiritual welfare. She took occasion also to remind him that many acts of apparent cruelty had been committed of which, it appeared to her, rebellious feelings and overt acts had been the immediate outcome. For these several reasons she deemed it unadvisable to reinstate him at once in the governorship of Hispaniola, and begged that he would wait at least two years, until affairs had quieted down in that island under the administration of a new governor whom she had in her mind to temporarily appoint. But as an alleviation of this apparently harsh act the Queen assured him that she had no disposition to deprive him of any of the honors which he had won, or of the dignities which had already been conferred. He should, therefore, continue to hold the position of nominal governor of the island and viceroy of the high seas.

As for Bobadilla, there was no other thought on the part of the sovereigns than to depose him, if not to dismiss him in disgrace. Even if Ferdinand was willing to reap the benefit of the things that had been done, he was by no means willing to incur the odium of defending and upholding his agent. Bobadilla was, therefore, consigned to that ignominious place in the page of history where he presents a striking example of the impetuous, vain-glorious and cruel autocrat of an hour.

The sovereigns decided to send out at once a royal viceroy with orders to supersede Bobadilla, and not only to restore order in the island, but to give attention and direction to the nascent industries of the colony, to the end that all might as soon as possible become regular and organized.

APPOINTMENT OF OVANDO AS GOVERNOR OF HISPANIOLA.

After due consideration, their Majesties chose for the important place of Governor of Hispaniola a Spanish nobleman and military commander of the Order of Alcantara, named Nicholas de Ovando, a man of excellent traits, but lacking in some essential qualities for a successful administration of affairs in the condition which Bobadilla had left them in the island. But when we consider that he was a close friend of Fonseca, the appointment was not so bad as Columbus had reason to expect.

The fleet appointed to accompany Ovando was the largest which had yet sailed to the New World, consisting of thirty vessels, five of which were from ninety to one hundred and fifty tons burden, twenty-four caravels of from thirty to ninety, and one bark of twenty-five tons. The number of souls who embarked in this fleet was about twenty-five hundred, many of whom were persons of rank and distinguished families. There were also live-stock, artillery, arms, munitions of all kinds, everything, in short, which was required for the supply of the island. The fleet put to sea on the 13th of February, 1502. In the early part of the voyage it encountered a terrible storm, in which one of the ships foundered with one hundred and twenty passengers, while the others were compelled to throw overboard everything that was on deck, and the whole fleet was completely scattered. The shores of Spain were strewn with articles from the fleet, and a rumor quickly spread that all the ships had perished. When this news reached the sovereigns they were so overcome with grief that they refused to see any one for a period of eight days. Fortunately the rumor proved to be incorrect, for but one ship was lost. The others assembled again at the island of Gomera in the Canaries and pursued their voyage, arriving at San Domingo on the 15th of April.

Being deprived of his command, and arrested in the exciting pursuit which he had begun ten years before, Columbus became depressed with melancholy reflections on the unjust treatment to which he had been subjected, not only by the appointment of the sovereigns, but by a two years' relegation to inaction, a time which was inexpressibly dreary to one who had been so long and actively engaged in adventurous enterprises.

DREAMS OF CONQUEST AND RESTORATION OF THE HOLY CITY.

But though disappointed in his hopes of immediate restoration to his government, he still had the visions and speculations in which his mind had been so richly productive since boyhood. It will be remembered that among the Admiral's dreams had been one relative to the recovery of Jerusalem from the Turks. This, indeed, had been a project of co-ordinate importance in his mind with the discovery of a westward route to the Indies. The vow which he had recorded to undertake the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre from the Infidels within a period of seven years he had not been able to fulfil, and the hope of raising fifty thousand infantry and five thousand horse from his own means seemed further removed now than ever. Indeed, instead of being in a situation of power, wealth and influence sufficient for that great undertaking, he now found himself lodged at the Spanish court, not wholly unembarrassed in resources, cordially disliked by the Spanish nobility, and dependent almost entirely upon the pledge of the Queen for his hopes of future aggrandizement. But while his condition was calculated to affect his ambitions, had there been any extraneous influences, his spirit was aroused to the grand results which might be obtained if he could induce the King and Queen to undertake a recovery of Jerusalem.

The Spanish court was, as we have seen, sitting in Granada, that ancient and glorious stronghold of the Moors around and in which the arts and learning and religion of the Arabs had flourished for eight centuries. There was the old palace of the Moorish kings,



FURY OF THE STORM.

the Alhambra of great fame, with its richly adorned halls and court of lions, from which the last of the Islamite kings had been driven only nine years before. The Admiral himself had witnessed that famous surrender in which the Crescent, after many centuries of splendid elevation, bowed to the Cross and the followers of the Prophet were driven back into Africa and the East. What more natural than that the mind of Columbus should follow in the course of the retreating Moors ; that he should pursue them along the African coast to Egypt, to Acre, to the Holy City ? He gave himself up to his old-time speculation and devoted a large part of the nine months of his residence at Granada to the promotion of his scheme for the re-taking of Jerusalem. But after this long fruitless effort with both the King and Queen to undertake a crusade, he found the uselessness of pressing further a scheme in which Ferdinand could not be prevailed upon to take any interest.



CHAPTER XVIII.

PREPARATIONS FOR A FOURTH VOYAGE.



ALL his efforts to arouse the fiery religious zeal of the Spanish sovereigns availing him nothing towards the realization of his pious dreams, Columbus turned his ambition once more to further exploration in the waters of the Occident. He now conceived the idea that he had reached a northern and southern continent between which there must be a strait or passage, which if once gained would bring him to the land of Cathay, where he might secure the inestimable riches and reward which had been the prime motive of his first voyage. So well did he set forth his plans and schemes before the Queen that she approved of his design and signified her willingness to become his patron on a fourth expedition. With these assurances, notwithstanding his age, Columbus set about in the most vigorous spirit preparations for a fourth voyage. Before taking his leave of the Queen, however, he asked permission to take with him his second son, Don Fernando, now in his fourteenth year, who with his brother had been acting as page to the Queen

for nearly two years. Having gained her consent to this request Fernando was commissioned as a naval officer, and the Admiral then proceeded to Seville to give the necessary orders for the fitting out of his proposed expedition. Columbus desired also the company of his two brothers, neither of whom, however, was disposed in the beginning to continue longer in a service which had brought them nothing but revilings and suffering. Don Bartholomew, however, was finally persuaded to sacrifice his inclinations to fraternal love, and consented to embark with the Admiral. But Don Diego could not forget the crying injustice committed towards the viceroy and himself, and he accordingly resolved to quit the world and in future serve only the church, acting upon which determination he embraced the ecclesiastical state, in which he continued to the end.

The fleet equipped for the fourth voyage consisted of four small vessels, ranging from fifty to seventy tons burden each, and the crews comprised one hundred and fifty men. All the preparations, while they were possibly adequate for the intended expedition, were modest to a degree and could but be in strongest contrast with the extraordinary magnificence and splendor of the fleet which had been prepared for Nicholas de Ovando. When Columbus asked that on the outward voyage he might be permitted to touch at Hispaniola, his request was refused on the pretence that the priests and the officials of the island were incensed against him and that his presence would only tend to intensify the difficulties against which Ovando had to contend.

DEPARTURE OF THE FLEET.

The little fleet departed from Cadiz on the 11th of May, 1502, passed over to the coast of Morocco and anchored before Ercilla on the 13th, intending to offer some assistance to the

Portuguese garrison, which it was learned was closely besieged by the Moors. But on his arrival there the Admiral learned that the siege had been raised, so after a short detention he continued on his way and arrived at the Canary Islands on the 20th, leaving there five days later for the New World. The trade winds were so favorable that the little squadron sped swiftly on its course without shifting a sail, arriving on the 13th of June at Mantinano (probably the modern Martinique), one of the Caribbee Islands. Here the ships' supplies were renewed and the men permitted to revive their energies by a three days' sojourn on land. Then the voyage was continued to Dominico and from that island to Santa Cruz, thence to Porto Rico and finally to San Domingo.

It will be remembered that Columbus had solicited the privilege of visiting the capital of his own island, but had been refused. A misfortune, however, had come upon the fleet which might well give the Admiral an excuse for departing from the letter of his instructions. The largest of his ships had proved to be so defective that she could no longer keep her place in the fleet without severe detention to the other vessels. Columbus deemed it expedient, therefore, to put in at San Domingo to exchange the bad ship for one of the vessels of Ovando's fleet, which he could so well spare. It thus happened that at the time when Ovando had completed the preliminaries of administration, when Bobadilla and many others had been put on board for the home-bound voyage, the fleet of Columbus on the 29th of June arrived at the harbor of San Domingo. At first the Admiral lay off and sent one of his captains to Ovando with polite messages and a request that an exchange of vessels might be made. But the governor would not accept the proposal, and even refused to grant Columbus the privilege of bringing his ships to shelter in the harbor. The Admiral had noted just at the time of his arrival the unmistakable signs of an approaching tempest, and he requested an opportunity to shelter his squadron until the coming hurricane should pass. To the less weather-wise, however, there were no such indications, and Ovando no doubt imagined that the request of Columbus was a pretext for opening communication with friends on shore. At all events the act of courtesy was withheld, and the discoverer of the New World was excluded from anchoring in the harbor of his own capital.

DESTRUCTION OF THE SHIPS AND LOSS OF BOBADILLA AND ROLDAN.

But this was by no means the end of the incident. The messengers whom Columbus had sent learned while on shore of the intended departure of Ovando's squadron for Spain. Moved by a lofty spirit of humanity which well becomes so great a man, the Admiral, though refused permission



to come to a place of safety, sent back his officers to solemnly warn Ovando of the approaching storm and to counsel him by all means to forbid the departure of the fleet until the danger had passed. This warning, however, was put aside as of no value, being disregarded by the pilots and mariners as it was by Ovando. In this false security the fleet of Ovando sailed away and reached the eastern extremity of the island; but, as Columbus had predicted, the fleet was now suddenly arrested by a fearful tempest which struck the vessels with such impetuosity that they were driven upon the rocks, and the shore was soon strewn with the wreckage. The ship on which Bobadilla, Roldan and many other of the insurgents had been placed for transportation to Spain, including the cacique Guarionex and other Indian

prisoners, and in which gold and other treasures gathered during Bobadilla's administration were stored, was caught in the dreadful fury of the storm and torn to pieces as though it had been a toy. The vessel broke and rolled helplessly on the surge for a moment, then plunged head foremost with all on board into the great vortex of the sea and disappeared forever! A judgment very different from that which might have been rendered by Bishop Fonseca in the packed courts of Seville was thus suddenly passed upon the reckless and despotic adventurers whose misdeeds had affected so disastrously the fortunes of Columbus; and both the men and their crimes were swiftly buried in the endless oblivion of the angry sea.

The ruin of Ovando's squadron was complete. A single vessel, one of the smallest of all, which strangely enough had as a part of its cargo the revenues of Columbus, collected for him in Hispaniola by Alonzo de Cavajal, his agent, escaped from the tornado and reached Spain in safety. It might well seem to the Spanish sovereigns that all discouragement and fate itself were against them in their attempt to take the West Indies for their own. To Columbus and his band the late events appeared as a signal interposition of Providence. His own ships escaped without extreme damage and were able to come together after the tempest and make their way in safety to Port Hermoso, on the south coast of the island, about twenty-five miles from San Domingo. Here Columbus refitted his vessels, and having taken on some additional stores, notwithstanding that the weather continued stormy, he renewed his voyage; but before proceeding many leagues the storm increased to such an extent that he was driven back to Port Jacquemel, where he remained until the 14th of July. Departing from this place, he skirted the coast of Jamaica and paid a brief visit to the Queen's Gardens, the small group of islands which he had discovered eight years before. Thence continuing his voyage in a southwesterly direction, he discovered an island so covered with lofty pines that he gave to it the name of *Isla de Pinos*, the Indian name of which was *Guanaja*, which it has since retained though sometimes called Bonacca. A short stay was made at this island, during which time Don Bartholomew went on shore and made some interesting discoveries among the people, whom he found hospitable though differing greatly in their ethnic peculiarities from other natives with whom he had come in contact. Among the interesting curiosities which he was permitted to see while visiting this island was a state-barge formed from the trunk of a single tree, and yet fully eight feet in width and as much as seventy feet long. On this great canoe the cacique had a sort of cabin constructed and fitted up in the most luxurious manner, in which he spent a great part of his time. Columbus was pleased to find that these people made a free use of the metals, though bone and wood were still largely employed in the manufacture of implements. Instead of the rude *celts*, or stone hatchets of the Bahamas and Antilles, these natives used copper for nearly all their weapons, and in fashioning these they displayed no little skill.

The pottery of the Guanajans had a fair claim to elegance, as did their textile fabrics, which were chiefly of cotton dyed with considerable skill. The products of the island were cocoa, the chocolate tree, Indian gum and the usual fruits found in tropical countries. But nowhere was Columbus able to find either gold or silver, so that he was permitted rather to gratify his curiosity than his avarice. These people tried to tell him of a country, great and powerful, lying somewhere west of their own; but communication with them was so difficult and their meaning so doubtful that the Admiral did not choose to make any effort to verify what they sought to reveal. Had he done so he must in less than a two days' sail have reached Yucatan, with its quaint and varied civilization,

and afterwards, by necessary sequence, the gorgeous Mexico, where his dreams of oriental splendor might well seem to be realized in the silver-bright halls of the Montezumas.

MEETING WITH NATIVES OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

Strangely enough, however, Columbus' whole attention was fixed on the finding of that strait which he confidently believed would lead him directly to the country where Genghis Khan was supposed to live in unexampled splendor and magnificence. It thus happened that the Admiral, confident of his ability to make his way through into the Indian Ocean, really cared little for the reports which the natives gave him respecting the wealth and opulence of the populous countries immediately to the west, but rather cared everything for the ocean currents to which he yielded himself in the confidence that they would bear him directly to his goal. He accordingly passed by one of the grandest opportunities of his life. Yucatan and Mexico were not discovered. Those lands, rich in the wonders of an ancient civilization, inhabited by millions of people belonging to a strange and unknown race, were left to others, while the Admiral's destiny carried him as if by a deluding vision into the most trying episodes of his whole career.

Leaving Guanaja, after a short voyage Columbus reached the coast of Honduras, where a landing was effected and the sailors were permitted to rest for three days. The country was claimed with the usual formalities, and on the 17th of August the squadron proceeded eastward along the northern coast of Honduras, but was arrested by ocean tides and such fierce storms that several times shelter had to be sought in the harbors along the coast. Rains poured down in such torrents as the Spaniards had never before witnessed, while occasionally, for a space of twenty-four hours, thunder reverberated with a continuous crash that seemed to shake both ocean and sky; lightnings pierced the darkened horizon, and the general confusion and terror were so great that the hardy sailors, though long weather-beaten and well experienced in the hardships and perils of the deep, frequently gave up in despair, confessed themselves and made ready for what they momentarily expected would be the final summons. Columbus was himself at intervals apprehensive that the end was at hand, and his sorrows were aggravated by the thought that he had brought to this stormy world his most devoted brother and his second son probably to perish with him.

VOYAGE ON THE COAST OF HONDURAS.

The storm having at length partially abated, Columbus was permitted to land from time to time at inviting harbors, where he came in contact with the natives and made many efforts to gain their confidence and a knowledge of their country. But in many cases they employed a language not understood by the interpreters, and communication with them was, therefore, uncertain. The first natives that Columbus observed on the coast of Honduras were generally naked and tattooed on different parts of the body with figures of the deer and jaguar. But he found others who were clothed with cotton waistcoats and a few had cuirasses made of the untanned skins of animals. In other places along the coast the natives bedaubed their faces with ochre, so as to give them a horrible appearance, greatly intensified by painting white circles around the eyes. Many of these people lived on uncooked fish and preferred all their meats raw, on which account rather than from ocular evidence they were believed to be cannibals. Farther eastward another tribe of natives was found whose peculiarity was in their practice of boring the ears and distending the orifice thus made by the insertion of pieces of bones, so that Columbus named the district *Costa de la Oreja*, Coast of the Ear.

After departing from this latter region the vessels stood out to sea, but only to plunge into another storm of exceeding severity. To add to the distress of the crews continuous

rains had rotted the sails until they were unable to withstand the wind, and were blown into tatters, while the caravels were so perforated by the teredo-worm that it required constant work at the pumps to keep them afloat. Exposure and want of sleep told severely on the strongest, and a majority of the men became incapacitated by sickness, while all were fairly helpless from terror. "I have seen many tempests," says Columbus, "but none so violent and of such long duration." Indeed from the time of leaving San Domingo his voyage had been a succession of storms, culminating in one of extraordinary fury. But after forty days of trials and dark forebodings they came in sight of a cape on the 14th of September, and doubling this point they reached a protecting body of water and were able to make a landing near the mouth of a river and attend to the necessary repairs of the ships. In commemoration of this relief Columbus gave to the cape the name of *Gracias a Dios*, or Thanks to God. Their stay at this place was cut short by a sudden swelling of the river, which poured down so great a flood that the vessels were swept out to sea, but happily when the repairs were so far made that they were able to withstand this new danger.

MAGICIANS OF THE DARIEN COAST.

Following the Mosquito shore along Darien, on the 25th they came to anchor opposite an Indian village called *Cariari*, where the prospect was delightful and the natives disposed to hospitality. But Columbus mistrusted the mysterious conduct of the Indians and became in turn the object of their distrust. A venerable old cacique brought two of his girls to Columbus as hostages for his pacific conduct, but even this offering did not fully restore confidence, for the young girls carried a magic powder with them which the Spaniards dreaded as much as the Indians held in terror the writing materials of their visitors. Being unable to establish mutual confidence, Columbus took his departure from Cariari and sailed along *Costa Rica*, the Rich Coast, landing at several places to communicate with the natives. He here found many evidences of abounding gold, but the signs of a strait being likewise conspicuous he did not stop long enough to fully explore the country for that precious metal.

A voyage of several days towards the south failed to reveal the passage of which he was in search, and the weather becoming stormy again Columbus was induced by the expostulations and urgings of his crews to turn back and visit the gold mines of Veragua, of which he had heard many wonderful reports. His next point was, therefore, Puerto Bello, where he tarried two days. But upon putting to sea another fierce storm arose which prevented him from regaining the harbor and left him again at the mercy of dashing wave and lightning stroke. Instead of abating after the first day the storm increased in violence, and the vessels were so severely buffeted by the wild waves of a raging sea that their seams were opened and the horror of a desperate situation fell upon all on board. Columbus had been suffering such great agony from gout that these hardships, so long protracted, with only brief intervals of relief, rendered him unfit for duty. But he had a small cabin built for him on the forecastle deck, through the windows of which he could see from his bed all that was transpiring about him. Here for eight days he watched with deepest anxiety the falling torrents of rain, the booming billows that pounded like battering rams against the little vessels, and the lightnings that shot like fiery serpents out of the sky and burst with thundering detonations around the ships.

DEATH THREATENINGS OF A WATERSPOUT.

Before these awful portents of frightful disaster the crews lost all hope of rescue, and set their thoughts on heaven as the harbor towards which their souls must now be directed. To

add to the general terror, Father Alexandre, the Franciscan chaplain, succumbed to sufferings to which the storm had subjected him, and in his death the superstitious sailors saw a fresh proof of God's afflicting hand in determining their destruction. But the worst incident of this tragical and horrific tempest was yet to come, that well might frighten fear itself. On the 15th of December the Admiral was startled by shrieks rising above the storm din and beating surges as if all the agonies of hell had burst through some rent in the sea to convey to earth an idea of the pangs visited upon lost souls. In this most appalling omen—this despairing cry that broke as it were from hearts stung by the darts of death—Columbus forgot his own sufferings in the excitements of a new danger. He tottered to the door, and sweeping the horizon with his feverish eyes discovered the cause of the sailors' consternation and affrightment. The four vessels had contrived to retain their positions, despite the fierce winds that assailed them, and in this relative proximity was now a danger of their engulfment together. Towards the north, less than a league away, the distressed watchers perceived the breaking waves gathering into one mountainous billow, growing higher and higher until its peak was whitened by a foaming cap of violent agitation. Immediately above this high-reaching watery summit black clouds that hung before the heavens like curtains of midnight began to boil and spread out their horrid hands to grapple and



COLUMBUS EXORCISING THE WATER-SPOUT.

amass the inky vapor that broke only before the lightning's bolt. Gaining a circular motion the clouds whirled faster and faster until directly the centre began to fall lower and lower to meet the upswirling mountain of water, when quickly an embracement occurred, frightful to behold, and in a death waltz the whirling

waterspout came rushing towards the ships. It was as if the clouds were sweeping up the sea with inexorable ravennings—a summoning of the waters of the earth before that great power who had once before imprisoned the deep in the heavens to turn it back in a deluge and drown the world.

No human skill could avert the calamity that was threatening. Nothing but God's providence could restrain this Satanic manœuvre. In an age so superstitious we are not surprised that in his extremity Columbus had recourse to exorcism to compel the demons of anger and calamity to yield their power, while he conjured the aid of blessed spirits to give him protection from the furies of the air. Taking six candles which had been consecrated by the church, and wrapping about him the cord of St. Francis, he unsheathed his sword and, holding this aloft in his right hand he held the book of the Gospels in his left, and facing the water-spout read the opening chapter of St. John. Having performed this holy service he spoke to the winds as if by the authority of Jesus Himself, commanding them to abate and the water-spout to dissolve itself into the sea. To make this adjuration the more effective he described a magic circle with his sword and drew the sign of the cross therein, at which, strange to relate, the water-spout seemed to swerve somewhat from its track and pass off obliquely with a bellowing noise to lose itself in the immensity of the ocean. And following



RECEPTION BY COLUMBUS OF CHIEF QUTBIAN.

the disappearance of the water-spout the curiosity in the result is increased by the fact that the raging of the sea measurably abated, and in a brief time there was a great calm.

On the 6th of January, 1503, the squadron had regained the coast and entered the mouth of a river, which in honor of the feast day Columbus called the *Belen*, or Bethlehem, which was scarcely more than a league from Veragua. The extraordinary difficulties which had attended the voyage from Puerto Bello to Veragua may be understood when we consider the fact that the distance was less than a hundred miles, and yet to traverse it required the labors and sufferings of nearly a month, during which interval Columbus had passed through more privations and anxieties than perhaps he had ever before experienced.

A VISIT FROM A TREACHEROUS CHIEF.

At the mouth of the Belen was a considerable Indian village, the inhabitants of which made a show of hostile intent at the effort of the Spaniards to land. But Columbus contrived through the interpreter to make them understand that his object in visiting them was to open a trade to their advantage. At these assurances they laid down their arms and accorded a welcome to their visitors, and after the first greetings were exchanged they became quite civil and traded several large pieces of gold to the Spaniards for hawk-bells and other European trinkets. A few days later Don Bartholomew, taking with him some of the more courageous spirits of the expedition, ascended the river to the residence of the cacique of the country, who was known among the natives by the name of Quibian. This chief welcomed him with a hearty spirit of cordiality and accompanied his peaceful overtures with presents of gold ornaments, and was more than content with such gewgaws as were given him in return. The chief also accompanied his visitors back to the vessels and was induced to come on board, when the Admiral gave him a reception, had his musicians perform several pieces, and after showing him through the caravel made him many presents of such trinkets as mirrors and hawk-bells. But suddenly some suspicion arose in the mind of the cacique, and without stopping to give any explanation of his conduct he left the vessel abruptly, nor could he be persuaded to return. On the following day Don Bartholomew, at the head of seventy men, made a second trip of several miles into the interior to explore the country and ascertain its products. He found some indications of gold and was assured that at the distance of twenty days' journey beyond there existed gold mines of large extent and exceeding richness, a report which the Spaniards were anxious to confirm by investigation.

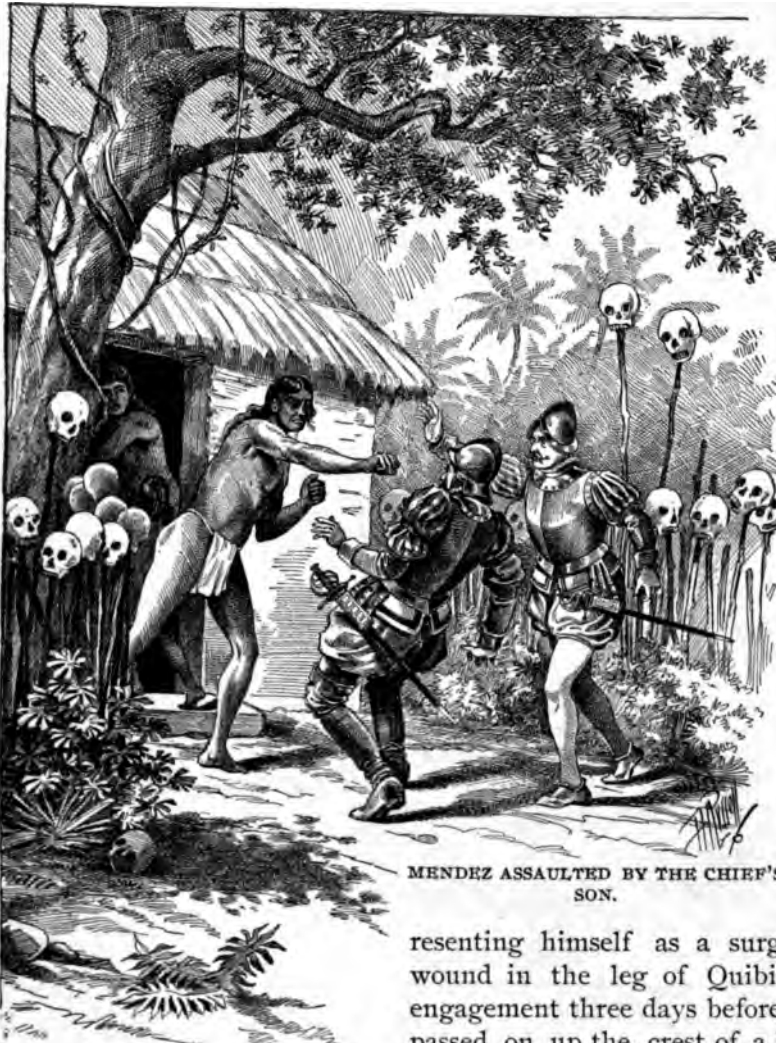
Since his physical condition as well as need of supplies prevented Columbus from continuing his search for the conjectured strait, he decided to establish a military post at the mouth of the river, while he himself would return to Castile to procure reinforcements and supplies, with the intent of accomplishing a permanent occupation of the gold-bearing country. He therefore conciliated some of the inferior chiefs by liberal presents, and gained their consent thereby to the building of a fortress on their lands. After completing the post he left a garrison of eighty men under the command of Don Bartholomew in charge of the fortress, and also a caravel for their use in case it became necessary for them to abandon the country. Having settled everything satisfactorily, Columbus raised his anchors preparatory to departing with the other two vessels. But in the meantime the water in the river had become so shallow that he was compelled to wait until rains came to swell it to the necessary depth to enable him to pass over the bar at the river mouth.

Meanwhile Quibian, learning that a settlement had been formed on his territory, resolved to attack the Spaniards unawares and burn their ships, a vague report of which plot

reached Columbus, but the particulars were wanting, nor could Columbus determine in his own mind the cause of this hostile purpose.

PERILOUS UNDERTAKING OF TWO SPANISH SPIES.

Diego Mendez and Rodrigo de Escobar, whose bravery and sagacity had already served Columbus in the most perilous extremities, and were to give services no less valuable thereafter, volunteered to enter the Indian camp as spies and ascertain the plans and intents of the enemy, a purpose which, hazardous as it was, Columbus gladly accepted, for upon their



MENDEZ ASSAULTED BY THE CHIEF'S SON.

success depended the fate of the expedition. The two proceeded up the river a short way until they came upon two Indians whom they engaged, by signs and such speech as they had mastered, to convey them in a canoe to the residence of Quibian, which was upon the river bank. Though the voyage was hazardous to a degree, the two resolute spies succeeded in reaching the cacique's capital without accident, but they found the village in a great state of agitation through warlike preparations, and danger signs were observable on every side. The audacity of the adventurers seems to have fairly appalled the natives for a time, but recovering from their surprise they manifested a murderous disposition which, however, Mendez restrained by rep-

resenting himself as a surgeon come to cure an arrow wound in the leg of Quibian, who had been shot in an engagement three days before. By this subterfuge the two passed on up the crest of a hill to the cacique's mansion,

which occupied a level space of some dimensions, around which were arranged the skulls and decaying heads of three hundred enemies killed in battle. Even this horrible sight failed to excite great fear in the mind of the intrepid Mendez; but scarcely had he crossed the court when a powerful son of Quibian rushed out and dealt the courageous Spaniard a blow in the face that knocked him backward, though not prostrate. This assault Mendez thought it unadvisable to resent, but rather to employ pacific measures to accomplish his ends. With this purpose he sought to conciliate the young man's anger by gentle words and by showing him a box of ointment which would cure

his father's wound. These overtures serving to make him amenable to other advances, Mendez presented the belligerent youth with a looking-glass, comb and pair of scissors, and showed him how to use the articles to improve his looks. Under the influence of these gifts the young man became not only tractable but even friendly, though no amount of persuasion availed to gain admittance to the chief. But being permitted to freely mingle with the Indians, Mendez and Escobar succeeded in discovering particulars of the designs of Quibian to assault and burn the ships, after which they returned in safety and apprised the Admiral fully of the plot, who took action at once to circumvent and punish the treacherous natives. The chief and several of his principal men were arrested by Don Bartholomew, who descended suddenly upon them with a force of eighty men. But through the negligence of the officer charged with his care Quibian contrived to make his escape, a result which the Spaniards did not seriously deplore, for they felt that their ends had been as effectually accomplished by a dispersion of the natives and the arrest of the chief as though he had been severely punished for his perfidy.

On the 6th of April the river Belen had risen to a stage of water permitting the passage of the ships, and the Admiral accordingly prepared to take his departure. Sixty of the men who had been left for garrison duty came out in a long boat to bid their comrades in the ship adieu, leaving only twenty men with Don Bartholomew to guard the fortress, and these were scattered, some on the banks of the river and others through the country in aimless wanderings. The lesson which the Spaniards had supposed Quibian had learned by his arrest did not prove so salutary as they had fancied, for seeing his advantage in the temporary diminution of the garrison he gathered his force of about four hundred natives and surrounded the camp. Fortunately before making the attack the Indians filled the air with their cries, which gave the Spaniards timely warning and opportunity to arm themselves to meet their assailants. The result of the battle which followed was the killing of nineteen Indians and the taking captive of fifty others, who were conveyed to one of the caravels and imprisoned in the hold as hostages, but in the encounter seven of the Spaniards were wounded, two of whom died on the following day. Don Bartholomew also received an arrow wound in the breast but not sufficiently serious to render confinement to his quarters necessary.

MASSACRE OF ELEVEN SPANIARDS.

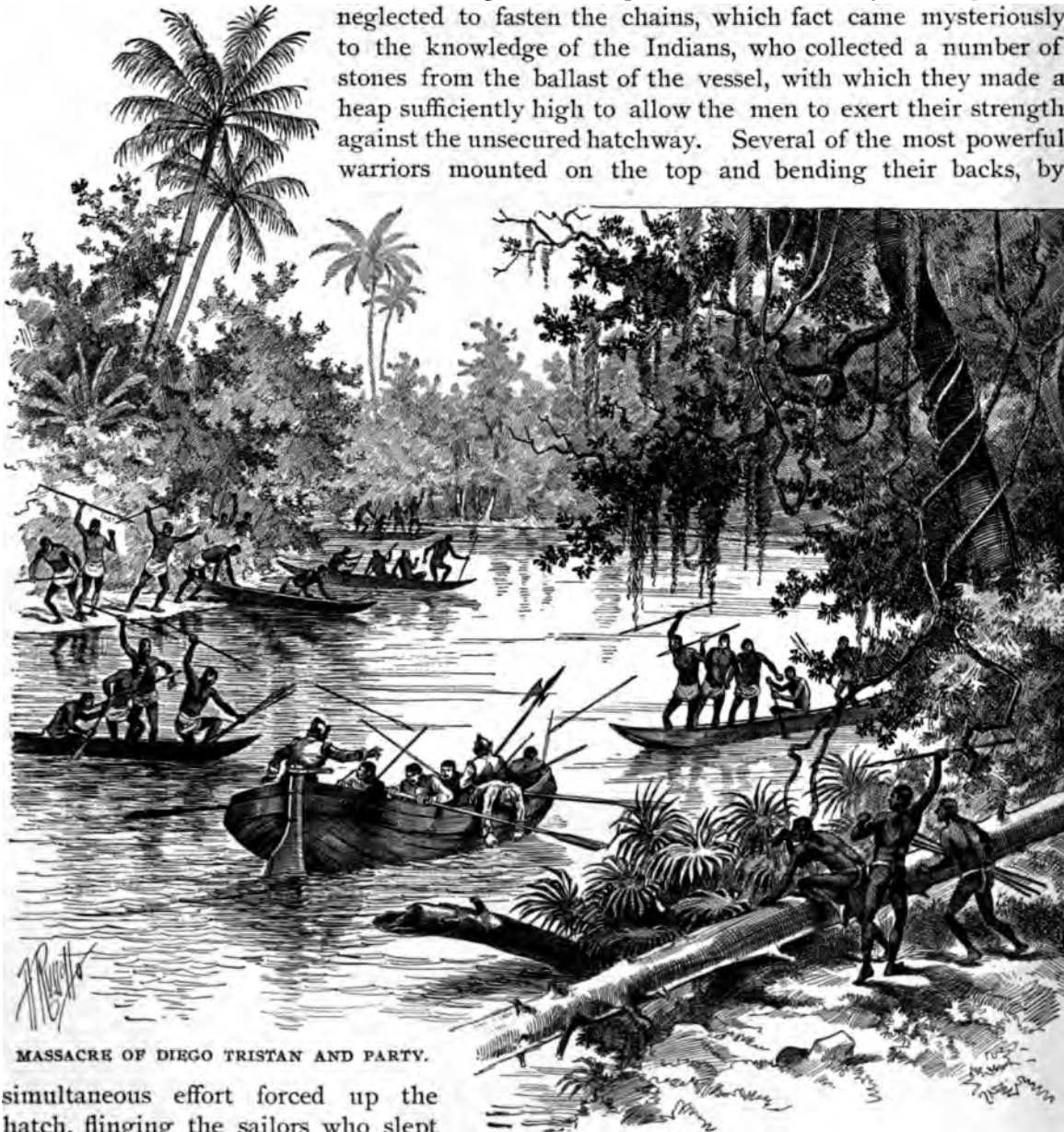
But this tragic incident was only the prelude to one which proved very much more serious; for on the following day Diego Tristan was sent up the river in one of the ship's boats with eleven men to procure a supply of fresh water, though he proceeded against the remonstrances of Diego Mendez, who was well acquainted with the character of the Indians and had made himself fairly fluent in their tongue. Tristan felt secure, however, with the force at his command, falsely reckoning that the natives had met with such disaster in their conflict with the Spaniards that they would hardly hazard another engagement at any odds. The consequence was that when he reached the place that afforded fresh water his boat was surrounded by Indians, some of whom were on shore and others in canoes, who fell upon the Spaniards with such surprise and impetuosity that all but one were massacred, and this sole survivor only escaped by the strategy of swimming under water to the opposite shore.

This tragic event distressed Columbus so much that he could not prevail upon himself to leave under circumstances which would appear as an abandonment of the feeble garrison to the implacable hostility of an innumerable number of infuriated savages.

On account of the boisterousness of the sea communication with the shore was impossible, hence Columbus was left without information as to what was being done at the for-

treachery. But he felt the insecurity of the men, though he had hopes that the Indians would not make an attack on account of the fifty prisoners who were detained as hostages on board his caravel. Every evening these captives were shut up in the forecastle of the vessel, the hatchway of which was secured by a strong chain and padlock. But one night the Spaniards

neglected to fasten the chains, which fact came mysteriously to the knowledge of the Indians, who collected a number of stones from the ballast of the vessel, with which they made a heap sufficiently high to allow the men to exert their strength against the unsecured hatchway. Several of the most powerful warriors mounted on the top and bending their backs, by



MASSACRE OF DIEGO TRISTAN AND PARTY.

simultaneous effort forced up the hatch, flinging the sailors who slept on it to the opposite side of the vessel. Having thus gained their liberty, several of them plunged into the sea and swam ashore. Others, however, were less fortunate, and being seized on the deck were forced back into their prison quarters and the precaution of locking them in was then attended to. What was the surprise of the officers, however, when distributing the rations early in the morning to find that during the night the imprisoned Indians had strangled themselves in their despair. Thus the situation was dreadfully

complicated, for those who escaped would communicate to their friends on shore the situation on shipboard, while the suicide of the prisoners would be calculated to nerve the natives to a greater determination to avenge them.

MARVELLOUS EXPLOIT OF A BISCAYAN.

In the fear that the Indians would now attack the garrison, Columbus was determined in some way to apprise his brother of the circumstances and put him on his guard. The rough sea, however, still precluded the possibility of a boat living to reach the shore, so Columbus was deeply distressed in mind how he should communicate the necessary intelligence, until a sailor named Pedro de Ledesma, a Biscayan, volunteered to swim through the breakers if the boat would take him sufficiently near. This proposal was eagerly seized upon, and the brave sailor successfully accomplished his hazardous undertaking. Reaching the camp unexpectedly he was received with the greatest joy as a liberator of the garrison.

The intrepid and herculean Ledesma found his countrymen in a deplorable situation, shut up in their fortress, for the time safe from their savage foes, but contemplating with



A PERILOUS UNDERTAKING.

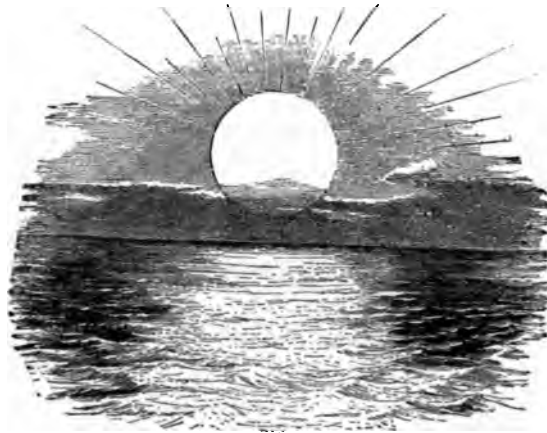
horror the hour when provisions should fail them and their ammunition be expended. Their alarm was also intensified by the depressing news of the tragic death of Diego Tristan and his companions, whose swollen bodies were now beginning to drift by on the stream, objects of contention among a thousand carrion birds. The men

therefore surrounded Ledesma and in frantic terms pleaded with him to urge the Admiral to save them from the certain destruction which awaited them if they continued in that deadly place. Already they had been preparing to debark in canoes and gain the ships, a desperate undertaking only delayed by the high rolling surf and tempestuous weather. Further they declared that if the Admiral abandoned them they would embark in the caravel that was left as soon as it could be floated over the bar.

Having received these gloomy and desperate reports from the beleaguered garrison, Ledesma set out on his return and succeeded again in passing the mad breakers in which it appeared that no human being could sustain himself a moment, and gained the ships, where he communicated the ominous tidings to Columbus. In such a situation some action was imperative, for to leave the men on shore would expose Don Bartholomew to the fury of a mutiny and end in a destruction of the settlement. There was no other alternative presented, therefore, than to embark the people, a thing which was impossible in the present turbulent state of the sea. The position of the ships was also perilous, subjected as they were to the hard-beating waves which threatened their annihilation, crazy, worn-eaten, rotten, as they were.

Anguished in mind, debilitated by age and wrecked with physical suffering, Columbus became affected by a diseased imagination, and in this disturbed condition he beheld a vision, which he described in a letter to his sovereigns as an angelic admonition and encouragement conveyed in the similitude of a dream. This he regarded as a direct

revelation and it gave him strength to bear the misfortune which had wasted his energies and hopes almost to the limit of despair. Under this inspiration, as soon as the gale subsided he set about the extrication of his people. The caravel within the river's mouth was abandoned through inability to bring her over the bar, but by lashing canoes together a raft was made on which was conveyed the munitions, stores and men of the fortress to the two ships in waiting, after which the imprisoned caravel was dismantled and such of her equipment as was useful was towed out and put on board the vessels. When the men found themselves freed from their perilous position and safe on the ships with their comrades they manifested the wildest joy, giving themselves up to the most exuberant transports, embracing each other in a very delirium of ecstasy and offering up prayers of gratitude and thanksgiving. Diego Mendez had superintended the embarkation and had otherwise rendered such efficient service that Columbus appointed him to the command of one of the caravels in place of Diego Tristan, who had perished at the hands of the Indians, as described.



CHAPTER XIX.

DEPARTURE OF THE ILL-FATED EXPEDITION FROM VERAGUA.



AFTER incredible sufferings and unexampled perils, costing the lives of a dozen brave Spaniards, it was with unspeakable joy that towards the end of September, Columbus took his departure from the accursed coast of Veragua and proceeded on his course for Hispaniola, which it was necessary to reach as quickly as possible to repair the ships and procure provisions. Bad weather continued, however, and the extraordinary number of tempests that they had encountered terrified the imaginations of the crews, who became persuaded in their minds that the Indians possessed some wondrous power of magic, and by a practice of their black arts had raised the storms and in the end would accomplish their destruction. Finally, after thirty leagues had been accomplished, one of the caravels was found to be leaking so badly that it was necessary to abandon her, some time being lost in transferring her equipment to the two remaining ships.

ACCUMULATING MISFORTUNES.

But even in this sorry condition the Admiral still had a yearning to prosecute his search for the strait which he believed would surely lead him to the opulent country of Cathay. To pursue this desire, however, it was necessary for him to practice some deception, as his crews would have objected and possibly mutinied had they known of his persistence in seeking for that which they were now confident did not exist. But Columbus himself, overmastered by the situation which confronted him, presently abandoned his purpose, appreciative of the dejected state of his sailors, enfeebled as they were by their privations and fatigue. Thus steering north they proceeded until near the vicinity of the Queen's Gardens, when they were assailed by another tempest and in a few hours had lost successively three anchors and sustained a collision between the two vessels, in which both were greatly injured, and it was almost a miracle that they were not destroyed. At length they contrived to reach the coast of Cubu, at Macaco, where they rested a while and succeeded in procuring a few provisions, when they set sail again, endeavoring to beat up to Hispaniola against the force of contrary winds. The *St. James*, one of the caravels, was compelled to run into a port, while the *Capitana*, the other vessel, unable to gain the shore, was so buffeted that she was upon the point of foundering. Notwithstanding the fact that the pumps were worked with all the energy that the crew could command, the water had risen to the deck and in another twenty-four hours the vessel would have undoubtedly sunk had she not, by what Columbus always declared was a miracle, reached the land in a sheltered cove.

At this point necessary repairs were made and on the 23d of June the two vessels pushed on to the northern coast of Jamaica, along which they sailed a considerable dis-

tance until they reached a beautiful harbor which he had discovered on a previous voyage, and to which he had given the appropriate name of *Santa Gloria*, Holy Glory. Here the two caravels, which had been reduced almost to wrecks and were upon the point of sinking, were fastened together and run aground.

As the indications now pointed to a considerable stay at this place, some thatched cabins were erected on the forecastles and sterns of the two vessels in which the crews managed to make themselves comfortable, while Diego Mendez went on shore to obtain a supply of provisions from the caciques. But Columbus knew the fickle and untrustworthy character of the natives with whom he had now to deal. While they apparently cheerfully furnished a supply of provisions their sinister conduct was such as to give him much uneasiness ; for he appreciated the defenceless position in which he had thus been unhappily placed. The natives were exceedingly numerous and were provided with many large war canoes, which plainly indicated that they were a people little disposed to peace and were most probably in open hostility the greater part of the time with their neighbors.

A LETTER REFLECTING THE ADMIRAL'S DESPAIR.

The caravels could not be put to sea again, and as all the master carpenters had perished in the disaster of the 6th of April no hope of others being built could be entertained. Not only was the Admiral thus greatly concerned for his safety, but he knew not how to procure aid or any means of making known to the Queen his discovery of the gold mines of Veragua, or of the countries which he had taken possession of in the name of their Catholic Majesties. Notwithstanding the fact that there seemed no possible means of transmitting a message, should he take the pains to prepare one, Columbus nevertheless concerned himself with the making of an elaborate report, probably trusting to some miracle for the means of its deliverance. In this letter he detailed at great length not only the discoveries he had made, but all the incidents which had befallen him from the time of his departure from Spain until his arrival in his wrecked vessels at the harbor of Santa Gloria. The utter despair which he felt at this time is indicated by the closing words of his letter, which are as follows : "I have hitherto wept for others, but now have pity on me, and O earth, weep for me ! Weep for me whoever has charity, truth and justice."

Ten days passed after the penning of this communication, and nothing occurring to relieve the anxiety of his situation, Columbus called to a private conference Diego Mendez, in whom his chief confidence was now reposed. At this interview (as reported by de Lorgues) he affectionately addressed that daring sailor as follows : "My son, none of those who are here but you and I know the danger in which we are placed. We are few in number while these savage Indians are many and of irritable and fickle natures. On the slightest provocation they could easily from the land set fire to our straw-thatched cabins and burn us all. The arrangement we have made with them for supplying us with provisions, and which they now fulfil with so much cheerfulness, may not continue acceptable to them, and it would not be surprising if to-morrow they brought us nothing ; nor have we the means of compelling them by force to supply us, but are left entirely at their pleasure. I have thought of a means of rescuing us if it meets with your views ; in the canoe you purchased some one may venture to pass over to Hispaniola and there procure a ship by which we all may be delivered from the perilous situation in which we are placed. Tell me your opinion of the matter."

Mendez replied : "Señor, the danger that threatens us is, I well know, far greater than is imagined. As to the project of passing from this island to Hispaniola in so small a vessel

as a canoe I hold it not only extremely difficult, but even impossible ; and I know not who there is would venture to run the extreme risk of traversing a gulf of forty leagues between islands where the sea is so extremely impetuous."

Notwithstanding the declaration of Mendez as to the impossibility of performing such a hazardous passage, the silence which now ensued and the dejected and hopeless appearance of Columbus on receiving this opinion prompted the brave sailor to offer himself as a sacrifice if need be to any of the designs which the Admiral might entertain. He thereupon advised Columbus to assemble all his men on deck the following day and call for some volunteers who would undertake the perilous enterprise. Adopting this advice Columbus did as Mendez had recommended, but the men regarded his proposal with astonishment, declaring it the height of rashness, whereupon the intrepid Mendez stepped forward and said : "Señor, I have but one life, yet I am willing to hazard it for the service of your Excellency and the good of all here present, because I hope that God, seeing the intention that governs me, will preserve me, as he has already done so many times."

A JOURNEY OF EXTRAORDINARY PERIL.

No man could appreciate a sacrifice like this more keenly than Columbus, and taking the noble Mendez to his bosom he embraced him fervently, and then looking upward, he said, "I have a firm confidence that our Lord God will enable you to overcome all the dangers that threaten." The courage of Mendez excited others of the Spaniards with a noble emulation, and several now came forward and signified their desire to accompany him. Through this means thirteen other Spaniards volunteered their services, and in two canoes and with six Indians in each as oarsmen they set out on their perilous voyage.

Fortunately the sky was clear and the surface of the sea was unruffled, giving propitious commencement to a voyage more hazardous than perhaps was ever before or since undertaken by any man. Their progress, however, was very slow and the Indians presently began to suffer exceedingly from thirst as well as from exhaustion. They had hoped to reach a small island called Navassa, which lay in their route, where they might obtain water and find refreshment and a short repose. But the third night passed without any sight of the expected land, while their privations had so increased that one of the Indians died and the others were so completely prostrated that the Spaniards had themselves to take the oars. They had almost abandoned hope in their extremity of suffering when Mendez discovered at break of day a dark line on the horizon, which through God's providence, proved to be the island of Navassa. Here an abundance of water was obtained, but some of the Indians, who could not be restrained, drank so immoderately that they died on the spot, while half the Spaniards gorged themselves to the point of serious illness.

SUCCESSFUL ACCOMPLISHMENT OF MENDEZ'S MISSION.

Having reposed for several hours on the shores of Navassa the voyagers re-entered their canoes and by rowing hard during the night they reached a point called Cape St. Michael, on the shore of Hispaniola, where they were hospitably received by the natives, who supplied them abundantly with provisions and administered to all their comforts. The exhaustion of the Spaniards, however, was so great when they had reached this point that Mendez rested for two days before beginning his journey to San Domingo. During this stay he fortunately learned that Ovando, who was now governor-general of Hispaniola, was in Xaragua, and accordingly he proceeded to that place to make his reports and to request the assistance of which Columbus stood distressingly in need.

Though it had required only three days for these intrepid voyagers to make the passage to Hispaniola, so imminent had been the peril that Captain Fiesco, who had accom-

panied Mendez as commander of one of the crews, could not induce any of his comrades to return with him to Santa Gloria and report to Columbus the success of their undertaking, considering that they had accomplished it through the interposition of Providence and that to attempt a return would be like challenging fate. Accordingly they accompanied Mendez to Xaragua and thence to San Domingo.

A secret presentiment seemed to assure Columbus that Diego Mendez had arrived safely in Hispaniola, and though his return was not so soon as had been expected he made his submission to the Divine will and used all his arts to soothe the secret irritations that agitated the minds of his sailors. But privations and sickness, as well as unheard of fatigues, created dissensions among the crews, who were confined to limited quarters and compelled to support life on a meagre subsistence. They accordingly began to ascribe all their sufferings to faults committed by Columbus, and to these disaffections serious accusations were soon added by those who constituted themselves the ring-leaders of the disloyalty which was now to flagrantly manifest itself.

Columbus, while apprised of these mutterings and mutinous spirit, nevertheless diligently employed himself looking after the welfare of the men and administering to the sufferings of those who were prostrated. But the mildness of his manner, the assurance of his speech, and the kindly disposition with which he treated those who were sharing with him the unfortunate situation did not serve to restrain the guilty disposition of those who had conceived a violent enmity for the commander.

Finally, on the 2d of January, 1504, a seaman named De Porras placed himself at the head of forty-eight adherents and arose in open revolt. Their first purpose was to kill Columbus, and they were only restrained from this wicked act by the fear that the crime would be severely punished by the sovereigns and by the courageous front which

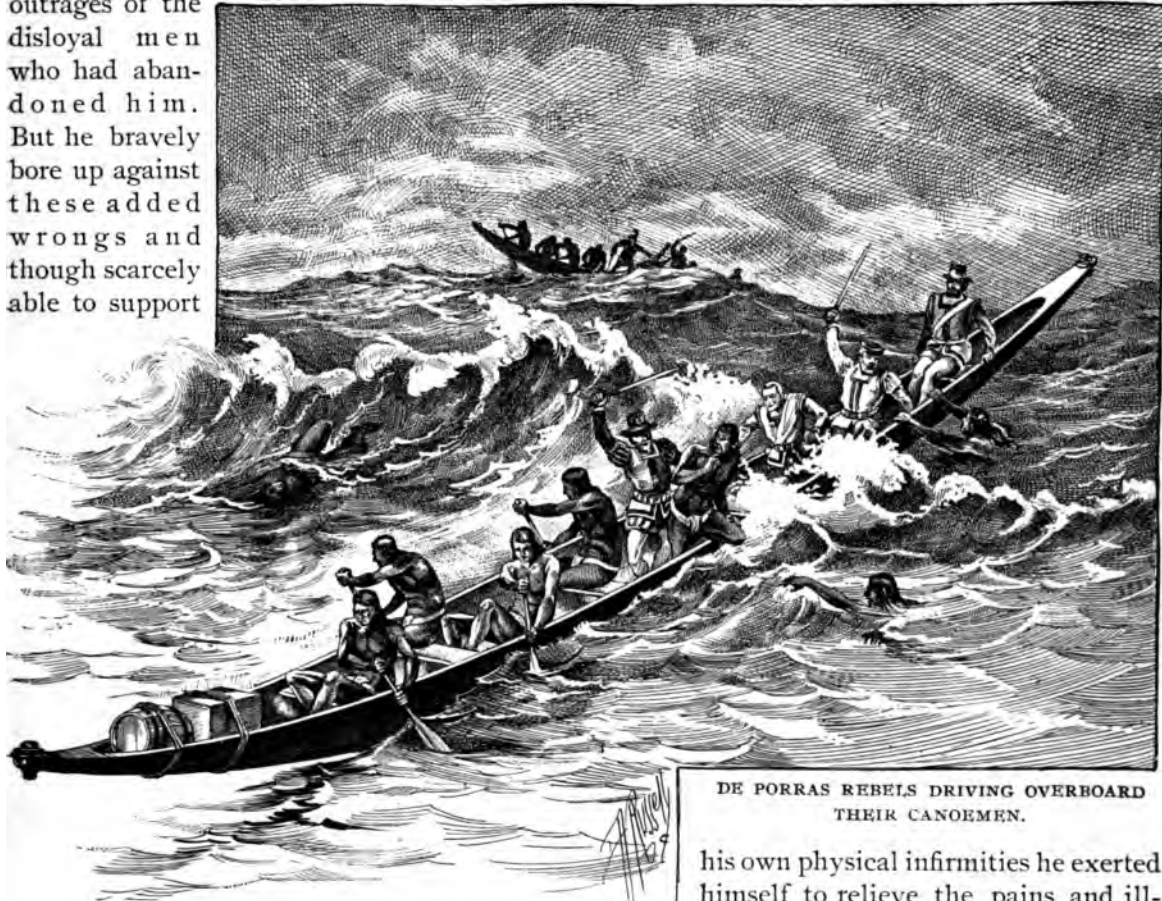


DON BARTHOLOMEW DEFENDING HIS BROTHER AGAINST THE
MUTINEERS.

Don Bartholomew opposed to the mutineers ; but taking six canoes which the Admiral had purchased from the Indians, and storing these with arms and provisions, they abandoned the Admiral and the few sick and infirm who were unable to accompany them.

HORRIBLE CRUELTY OF THE MUTINEERS.

The departure of these mutineers was not made with signs of regret or the bidding of farewells, but with shouts of defiance and revilings, and not before they had incensed the Indians by violent appropriation of much of their property. Thus Columbus became exposed to the anger of the natives who he believed would hold him accountable for the outrages of the disloyal men who had abandoned him. But he bravely bore up against these added wrongs and though scarcely able to support



DE PORRAS REBELS DRIVING OVERBOARD
THEIR CANOEMEN.

his own physical infirmities he exerted himself to relieve the pains and ill-

ness of those more helpless than he for whom he felt the tenderest sympathies.

De, Porras at the head of his followers, set out in ten canoes and proceeded along the coast until they gained the eastern extremity of the island, when, unwilling to trust their own skill in the management of the canoes, the rebels prevailed upon several Indians, by liberal gifts and many promises, to accompany them, and when at length the weather was favorable they set out for Hispaniola.

Scarcely had the canoe squadron gained a league seaward when a contrary wind arose, followed by rapid swelling of the sea, which became so threatening that they turned towards the shore. But now a fresh trouble confronted them. The canoes being without keels and heavily loaded it was impossible to so manage them as to prevent the waves from dashing over, nor could vigorous baling long keep them afloat unless some remedy were applied.

The cause for alarm growing with the increasing wind, the mutineers threw overboard everything that could be spared. But this sacrifice of stores being insufficient to prevent the continued shipping of water they compelled all the Indians to fling themselves into the sea, except a few who were needed to paddle the canoes. If any refused to obey this order they were thrust out by the sword or lance, and being too far from shore to risk an attempt to gain it by swimming the poor Indians kept by the canoes, grasping at the sides when their strength was spent. The Spaniards, fearing that these efforts at self-preservation would result in overturning the canoes, savagely cut off the hands of the swimmers, or more humanely stabbed them to death with their swords; so that in this way eighteen of the Indians miserably perished, none surviving save those who had been retained to do the work of paddling.

By sacrificing their stores and murdering nearly all the natives who served them in the desperate undertaking to reach Hispaniola, the wretched band regained the coast of Jamaica, enraged at the miscarriage of their own crimes. Dissatisfaction now began to show itself, and some of the mutineers were in favor of returning to Columbus and, confessing the evil of their conduct, implore his forgiveness; but a majority resented this proposal, preferring to lead a life of lawlessness and the indulgence of a riotous license which opportunity now offered, since they could force subsistence from the Indians and compel them to minister to their licentious passions. Thus they went from village to village despoiling the natives and committing all manner of excesses, exciting in their victims not only a hatred of themselves but of all Spaniards.

It was not long before Columbus began to experience the effects of the marauding incursions of the mutineers. The Indians, considering him as in sympathy with the freebooters, through being of the same race, exhibited a waning confidence and gradually reduced the offerings of provisions until presently they broke off all intercourse, leaving Columbus and his feeble followers to face a threatened famine. To add to the dangers of his situation there was the fear of an uprising of the natives, who were beginning to manifest a disposition to hostility. In this emergency, calculated to quicken the wits of a resourceful man, Columbus conceived a happy expedient for restraining not only any evil designs which the Indians might have, but also for regaining their confidence and assistance. By some means unreported, Columbus had knowledge of a total eclipse of the moon about to occur, and he concluded to utilize this event to impress the natives with the belief that it was a mysterious portent of the sky sent as a forewarning of the Great Spirit's intent to punish them for having withdrawn their hospitality from the white or celestial strangers who had visited their shores.

THE NATIVES AWED BY AN ECLIPSE OF THE MOON.

To carry his scheme into effect he sent his interpreters to the neighboring caciques to reveal to them the calamity of famine and pestilence which would be swiftly sent upon them as a visitation of Divine anger. As an evidence of the truth of this prophecy he declared that at a certain hour on the second night following the moon would gradually pale and then fade entirely away in the heavens.

The natives at first treated this direful prediction with disregard. But at the time appointed the most dreadful fear fell upon them, as looking towards the star-spangled vault of a clear sky they perceived a shadow deep and awful spreading across the moon, and before the obscuration was complete the villages and forests were resonant with wailings and cries to the Great Spirit for mercy. In response to their appeals Columbus offered to lift his voice in prayerful petition to the world's Master to grant deliverance to the natives

on condition that they would supply him and his people generously with food and continue faithful in their friendship as long as he remained among them. To this condition there was a universal assent and with a thankfulness which showed the depth of their sincerity. Thereupon Columbus retired to his cabin and remained until the moon emerged brightly from the earth's penumbra, and when he ventured forth it was to be hailed by the grateful Indians as one who possessed the special favor of the Deity, and their promises they according faithfully fulfilled.

ANOTHER MUTINY DISPELLED BY THE SIGHT OF A SHIP.

But though their immediate wants were supplied, the followers of Columbus still had much to complain of, for their quarters were both small and insecure, while sickness became



THE NATIVES AWED BY AN ECLIPSE OF THE MOON.

so general among them that they grew first despondent and then irritable. So long a time had elapsed since Mendez and Fiesco had departed on their hazardous journey to obtain relief that the impression prevailed they had perished, nor could the kindness and assurances of Columbus dispel the gloomy, despairing thoughts of his restless men. Out of this irritation soon sprang another mutinous spirit, under the incitements of two leaders named respectively De Zamora and De Villatoro, who decided to seize the remaining canoes and in them endeavor to make a passage to Hispaniola. But almost at the moment when their plan was to be executed the white sails of a vessel were seen in the offing, and a few moments later it was discovered to be bearing towards the harbor of Santa Gloria. At this gracious sight the voice of murmuring became hushed and joyful anticipations replaced the despondency which had harassed the stranded explorers so many weeks.

Nearer came the vessel; but when it reached the harbor entrance anchor was cast and a boat lowered in which an officer with half a dozen seamen came ashore. The ship proved to be one sent by Ovando in command of Diego de Escobar, a renegade who had been a follower of Roldan and once condemned to death by Columbus. The boat came close to the stranded ship but without debarking Escobar delivered his message from Ovando and waited until Columbus could write a reply. He then deposited in a boat a cask of wine and a side of bacon as presents from Ovando, after which he took his departure without even so much as giving a promise to relieve the suffering men at any future time.

The circumstance of a ship being sent by Ovando to the stranded explorers was proof that Mendez had successfully performed his mission, but in Escobar's refusal to extend relief or transport them to San Domingo the men affected to discover more evil designs. Columbus, while sharing the despondency of his followers, sought to revive them by assurances that his letter from Ovando contained a promise that a large ship would be sent to their aid as soon as it could be made ready, and excused his neglect to rescue them immediately by the statement that he had no suitable vessel at hand for the purpose.

Feeling the need of increasing his force, and appreciating the importance of conciliating the friendship of the natives, harassed as they were by the outrages of the mutineers, Columbus sent to the rebels, as an offering of good will, a piece of bacon left by Escobar, exhorting them to return under promise to remit their crimes with a full pardon and an agreement to give them a place on the ship which he said would soon be sent for his deliverance. But De Porras was so distrustful that when he learnt of the approach of the agents of Columbus he took care that they should not have communication with any but himself. He told the men that he had no desire to return to the Admiral; that his party were fully satisfied with their condition and desired only to be left alone in peace. But he added that in case two ships of rescue should arrive Columbus should give him and his followers one of them with half the stores and provisions, and he followed this suggestion with a threat that if this were not done they would come and take it for themselves. Such was the communication which De Porras returned to the peaceful overtures that were made by Columbus. But to satisfy his followers, whose fidelity he did not fully trust, he declared to them that the purpose of the Admiral was simply to get them into his power and then punish them for their laudable endeavor to save themselves from the certain death which awaited them had they remained on the stranded vessels. He further treated the story of the visit of a ship from Ovando as a delusion and a snare. He said that Columbus was in league with the powers of darkness and a practicer of the black art. The ship that had seemed to approach the harbor was nothing therefore but a phantom conjured to deceive the men who had remained faithful to him. He counselled his followers further, that the only way remaining to them was to fall upon Columbus and his minions, take them prisoners, and then conduct their affairs with respect to the one great question of escaping from the island.

A BATTLE WITH THE MUTINEERS.

The effect of these misrepresentations was all that De Porras could desire. The rebels rallied to his call and made a descent upon the stranded vessels with the intention of either taking Columbus prisoner or killing him outright. But their murderous scheme was discovered by some friendly Indians who brought information of the plot to the Admiral, who assembled fifty of his trusted soldiers under the command of Don Bartholomew, and sent them out to repel the attack. When the two forces approached each other on the 19th of

May (1504), Bartholomew, acting under the Admiral's direction, sent messengers to confer with the insurgents and offer terms of settlement. But these De Porras refused to hear, confident in his ability to execute his purpose. The first aim of the rebels was to kill Bartholomew, and for this purpose six of the most intrepid followers were stationed about De Porras with instructions to follow him into the fight. The attack was accordingly made directly upon Don Bartholomew himself. But this courageous man, who was an intrepid fighter as well as a great commander, received his assailants with such vigor that several of the rebels fell dead under the blows of his sword. Having disposed of the first antagonists he came face to face with De Porras himself, and a personal duel was fought in which, at the first pass, Don Bartholomew was wounded through the buckler. But the sword fortunately hung in a cleft and seizing his enemy in his powerful grasp Don Bartholomew overmastered him, but sparing the wretch's life was satisfied to take him prisoner. No sooner had their leader fallen thus early in the fray than the insurgents withdrew, leaving Don Bartholomew to return in triumph to the Admiral, bringing De Porras and a half-dozen other prisoners. When De Porras was brought before Columbus he no doubt expected a punishment commensurate with his crimes. But humane and generous impulses were always predominant in the heart of the Admiral, and instead of executing him on the spot, as he might justly have done, he was satisfied to hold him a prisoner and even extend a proposition of surrender to the other mutineers, promising freely to pardon and receive them into his service as before, which magnanimous proposal they were glad to accept. But as a measure of prudence Columbus deemed it advisable to hold De Porras a prisoner until such time as he could be tried and convicted according to law.

RELIEF AT LAST.

About the time that affairs were thus reduced to quiet in Jamaica, the long-expected succor came in the form of two ships well supplied for the deliverance of the stranded Spaniards. A year had now elapsed since the departure of Mendez in the almost forlorn hope of reaching Hispaniola by canoe. During this time he had assiduously agitated the rescue of the Admiral and his companions. It is the opinion of Las Casas that public sentiment in Hispaniola gradually bore more and more heavily upon Ovando for his seeming neglect of his great countryman in his distress, and the time came when the governor was constrained to make a virtue of necessity by sending out a relief expedition from San Domingo to Jamaica.

One of the ships ordered for this purpose had been equipped by Diego Mendez himself out of the revenues due Columbus, and to him was therefore entrusted the command, while the other was committed to Diego de Salcedo, who had been one of the Admiral's officers at San Domingo. On the 28th of June (1504) the two vessels arrived at the harbor of Santa Gloria and the long stranded mariners were taken on board with their few remaining effects, and the sails were at once set for San Domingo. But the weather was so inclement and the winds so constantly violent and contrary, that it was not until the 13th of August following that the voyage was accomplished and the aged discoverer of the New World was permitted once more to land in the town which he had founded as the capital of his New Indian Empire.

We are gratified to learn that upon his arrival the reaction in favor of Columbus was so great that he was hailed with enthusiasm by the very men who had sent him forth with gyves on his wrists to be carried as a common criminal to Spain. It is not possible to suppose that these acts of public applause, temporary and fictitious as they were, could be grateful to Ovando even though his rival were an aged man stricken with many mala-

dies and worn down under the accumulation of many griefs. Nevertheless the governor made a show of uniting in the kindly reception, taking the Admiral even to his own house and extending to him the fullest courtesy and respect. In a short time, however, causes of difference began to work between the two men and their relations henceforth, though superficially amicable, were never sincere. The first dispute between them arose over their respective authority to punish the prisoners that Columbus had brought to the island for trial. The governor claimed that Jamaica as well as Hispaniola was a part of his government, while Columbus contended that under the last letters issued to him by Isabella he had full rights to try and punish any offenders against his authority. Another ground of complaint which Columbus urged against Ovando was neglect to collect the revenues which were due him from the island according to the original compact with the sovereigns. Under these stipulations Columbus was entitled to an eighth of all the tributes collected from the natives, as well as the products of the mines, and he had, therefore, reason to expect a large sum to his credit upon his return, unless the revenues had been wasted and his rights neglected. But he found himself practically penniless, and thus again dependent upon the generosity of the crown.



COLUMBUS RETURNS.



CHAPTER XX.

ABUSES AND HORRORS UNDER OVANDO'S RULE.



UNDER the governorship of Ovando affairs in Hispaniola had become more deplorable than they had appeared at any time since the Spanish discovery. We may therefore pause here in the narrative of incidents in the life of Columbus in order to hastily sketch the progress of events in that island from the time of the arrival of Ovando down to the return of Columbus. We have seen how great a company of colonists and adventurers, 2500 in all, he brought with him, and with how much *eclat* he came to San Domingo and undertook the duties of viceroy after the temporary suspension of Columbus from that office.

The men whom Ovando had thus brought to the New World were, with the exception of seventy colonial families, of the same general character as those who had preceded them. Fully a thousand of the number had gone out with the expectation that gold would be found in such great abundance throughout the island of Hispaniola that it would be gathered in unlimited quantities at the expense of no other exertion than the shovelling of it into bags which were brought along for that purpose. They had no sooner arrived, therefore, than a great rush for the gold fields of Hayna was made, each man taking with him his mining implements and a limited supply of provisions.

There is no disappointment so bitter as that which follows a miner who sets out under the glowing prospects excited by stories of inexhaustible wealth, and coming to the mine so flatteringly described finds that the precious ore exists in the sparsest quantities and is obtainable only by the most onerous and persistent exertions. This experience has been common to many men in many ages.

The Spaniards made a rush across the intervening country, and reaching the gold fields undid their packs and began to dig. It required only a day or two to dispel the illusion. Here and there small quantities of fine gold dust might be found in the sand, and occasionally particles of the precious metal would glitter in a spadeful of earth thrown up by hands unused to working with delving implements. But fatigue and exhaustion came after a few hours of this unrequited labor, and then the miners, disgusted and hungry, sat down by running streams and springs of water to devour their provisions. But ever devouring and never producing soon exhausted the supply which they had brought with them, and the Indians refusing to supply them with either fruit or products of the fields, the hungry miners were brought face to face with famine, and they gave over their golden dreams for the harsh necessity of seeking food to avoid starvation. Worn out, homesick, despondent, starving, many of them perished in the forests, but a majority returned to San Domingo and inaugurated a mild reign of terror.

THE INDIANS REDUCED TO SLAVERY UNDER THE LASH.

The situation was so serious that the governor undertook to deal with the mining question by creating a regular system under which the business of gathering gold might be profitably conducted. He saw that the disappointment of those who had come out under his promise of great gain was such that it might end in compromising him not only with his followers but with the sovereigns; for not a few had influential relatives residing at court who would voice and urge their complaints. To afford them some relief and encouragement, Ovando issued an edict reducing the percentage of the gold due to the crown to one-fifth, and then inaugurated a system of slavery by which each Spaniard was allowed according to his rank the use of the free labor of a certain number of Indians. The very evils which had been the source of so much complaint against the former administration, namely, that the Spaniards were abusive to the Indians, treating them with untold cruelties by compulsory labor in the mines and fields, were thus revived by Ovando, and it was not long before the severity of his system surpassed all that had been witnessed or heard of before.

As a justification of his course the governor set forth to the sovereigns that a reduction of the natives to regular labor under the authority of a master class was a necessity of the conditions present in the colony; that otherwise the tributes could not be collected; that the natives were by nature indolent, and in short that the only method of bringing them to the blessings of a civilized and Christian life

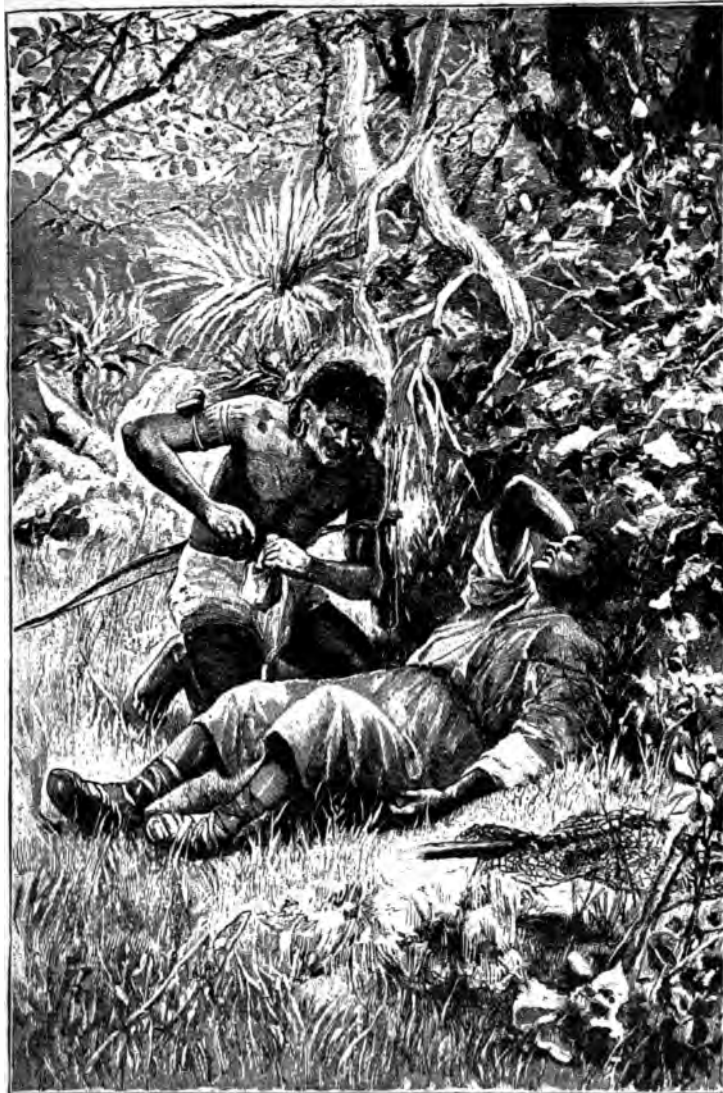


NATIVES SLAVING AT THE PLACER MINES.

was to subject them to servitude under which a Catholic training could be the more effectually given them. The Queen herself was deceived somewhat by that part of the argument which related to the allotment of the Indians as slaves to the Spaniards, who were expected to exert a Christianizing influence over them. Little did Her Majesty understand the profound hypocrisy of this excuse. Likewise she failed to comprehend the utter indifference of the Spanish masters in Hispaniola to all considerations of the welfare of the wretched natives.

The Spaniards proceeded under their license to demand of the caciques the required assignment of laborers, and the chieftains were compelled by the government to comply. At first there was some show of respect for native rights, but this presently ceased. In the beginning it was agreed that the Indians should have a small wage as recompense for their labor and that they should also be instructed in the catechism of the church and be baptized by the priests. But the whole thing was a mockery. Even the limit of the period of service to six months of the year was presently extended to eight months, and might have been extended to twelve, since the feeble constitution of the natives generally gave way under the intolerable tasks imposed upon them during their first term of servitude.

No sooner was the system regularly organized than it became apparent that the native foods, mostly of fruits, would not suffice for the men engaged in severe toil. But the Spaniards had no other food to waste upon their Indian slaves, being concerned in getting the most out of them that was possible, regardless of what the result might be. Sometimes a very small distribution of meats was made to them, but such was the hunger of the poor wretches that they struggled and fought like ravening animals for the scraps and bones that



UNHAPPY NATIVES PERISHING OF STARVATION.

fell from the tables of their masters. As they sank and fainted under their tasks the lash of exacting masters began to descend upon their backs. Their flagging industry was quickened by the horrid thong of the driver, so mercilessly applied that to this added misery they succumbed in such numbers that only a small proportion survived to the end of their term of service, and many of these perished before they could reach their homes, which in not a few cases were as much as a hundred miles distant from the place of their labors. Thus the roadsides and forests were strewn with the victims of this horror and despair, and the air was polluted with the decay of human bodies.

ATROCITIES IN THE FAIR LAND OF XARAGUA.

While these indescribable abuses prevailed in the vicinity of San Domingo, in the mines of Hayna another form of calamity came upon the hapless Indians in the fairest western province of Hispaniola. It has been recounted how the followers of Roldan had been granted a partition of land in Xaragua, whither they had betaken them-

selves after the collapse of their rebellion. It is needless to affirm that such men, without family ties and under no restraint of civil authority, were incapable of developing into anything better than licentious vagabonds. The Spaniards thus distributed throughout a once happy district were a standing menace to the peace and prosperity of the natives. They were no better than robbers and tyrants following no other law than the impulse of passion and degenerate will.

A short time after the foundering of the squadron which Ovando had despatched to Spain with Bobadilla, Roldan and others, Behechio, who held the sceptre of native authority in Xaragua, died and was succeeded by his sister, the amiable, beautiful and devoted Anacaona. Her acquaintance with Don Bartholomew has been mentioned in a former chapter, wherein was described the royal welcome which she accorded him and the devoted friendship which she ever manifested for the Spaniards. Nevertheless she seems to have discriminated between the good and bad and to have gained by superior intelligence a knowledge of the degraded character of the Roldan followers who were in her territory. Against these she probably cherished a just enmity, as they were and had been a constant source of menace and trouble to her government. With respect to Ovando and his government, however, she had so far as the record shows a favorable opinion.

The reader will readily perceive how easily, under such circumstances, the Roldan rebels living in Xaragua might become the agents of mischief between the Spanish authority and the native government. We are, therefore, not surprised to learn that local difficulties and disagreements between the late Roldan rebels and the Xaraguans might be reported with the wildest exaggerations to the authorities at San Domingo, with appeals for interference. The minds of the governor and his counsel would thus be poisoned against the natives, and in the disturbed if not chaotic condition of the government there would be little disposition to accord justice to a people who had been outraged in every possible manner almost from the time that the Spaniards set foot upon Hispaniola. This advantage was accordingly taken. The Spanish Xaraguans began to complain against Anacaona and excited the governor against her on the charge that she was secretly concerting a rebellion and had already made arrangements to that end. They sought to substantiate this by pointing to the fact that the Indians had delayed the payment of the last tribute with a view to collecting provisions and preparing themselves to make a descent upon the settlers.

HOSPITABLE RECEPTION ACCORDED BY THE UNSUSPECTING QUEEN.

Alarmed at these reports, which he seems to have been disposed to believe without investigation, Ovando determined to visit Xaragua and settle all difficulties in his own arbitrary way. Accordingly he collected an army of three hundred infantry and seventy cavalry which he equipped in the most thorough manner for an expedition of conquest, though he was careful to give it out that his purpose was merely to pay a state visit of friendship to Queen Anacaona. The latter having no distrust of her enemy, gathered all her chieftains, headmen and nobility, including men and women, into her town and prepared to receive the governor in a manner which had been so captivating to Don Bartholomew and his cavaliers. A description of their reception may be repeated with added circumstances of picturesqueness and enthusiasm. Again the beautiful maidens of noble birth came forth dancing, waving palm branches and singing their native songs, many of which had been composed by the Queen herself, for as already stated she was an Indian Sappho. The finest house was set in order for the governor, and the army was well quartered and provisioned; nor was anything omitted by the Queen to manifest her regard for the Spaniards. To provide an entertainment for her visitors, many games were introduced and for three days such sports as the Indians had been able to devise for the white men were indulged in to the great delight of all present. But even while this pleasant entertainment was in progress and the friendly regard of the Queen was being manifested, the purpose grew and matured in the mind of Ovando to destroy with horrid perfidy the unsuspecting people whose friendly hospitality appeared to be unbounded. He conceived the project of accomplishing his purpose in so dramatic and spectacular a manner as to make the event

one of the most tragic incidents in the annals of the times. He informed the Indians at the conclusion of their sports that he and his men would in their turn perform a game for the entertainment of the Queen and all present. The spectacle should be given in the public square, and the games would be a jousting match, performed after a manner the Spanish chivalry had borrowed from the Moors. Meanwhile Ovando ordered his soldiers to appear in the public square not only with reeds for lances and sticks for swords, but also with their real weapons whetted and charged for slaughter.

A FRIGHTFUL MASSACRE OF THE DEFENCELESS NATIVES.

The situation was such as to favor the atrocity. Nearly all the caciques and Xaraguans were gathered in a large house which had been assigned to Ovando, while the public square was filled with the common people. The governor had just risen from a dinner given in



RECEPTION DANCE OF THE XARAGUAN MAIDENS.

his honor by the Queen, and had gone out into the open air to pitch quoits with some of his officers. As soon as the cavalry arrived it was marshalled in array. Ovando, while lifting a quoit in one hand, raised the other and grasped a gold ornament suspended from his neck as a signal for the massacre to begin! Instantly a trumpet sounded, the cavalry put their lances at rest, the infantry drew their swords, and simultaneously the murderous army rushed to the assault. The house where the caciques were assembled was surrounded and all of them taken prisoner to the number of forty. Some authorities declare there were eighty. These were bound and then put to torture in order to extort a confession of a plot conceived by the Indians to slaughter the Spaniards. Some of the Indians, in their terror and suffering, shrieked out impossible things respecting their Queen, and these false ejacula-

tions were considered by the defamers as legal proof of guilt. Then the cavalry began in earnest. The horsemen rode down and thrust through the natives without discrimination or mercy. The aged, the children, the women were all given up together to the horror of a bloody and mutilated death. The caciques were confined within the house, and being bound to prevent the possibility of their escape, the building was fired and they all perished in the most miserable and horrible manner. Anacaona was rudely seized by vulgar soldiers, and being bound with chains was carried to San Domingo, where she was subjected to the mockery of a trial, and without the shadow of legal evidence and against all indications of guilt was hung in the streets.

Horror and frightful criminality, however, did not terminate the riot with Anacaona's execution, for the massacre extended until all the better families in Xaragua were decimated. The terrible story runs to the effect that for six months together the Spaniards, breaking into bands and making their way from village to village, and even to the fastnesses of the woods and hills, cut down the unoffending and defenceless natives with all manner of added atrocity, until Xaragua was a desolation. When the work was finally completed and the ruin needed no further touch of infamy, Ovando wrote to the sovereigns a gilded report of how he had succeeded in restoring good order and how he had founded a town in commemoration of the happy deliverance of the Spaniards, to which he had given the significant name of *Santa Maria de la verdadera Paz*, that is, St. Mary of the True Peace.

THE PERSECUTION AND DEATH OF COTABANAMA.

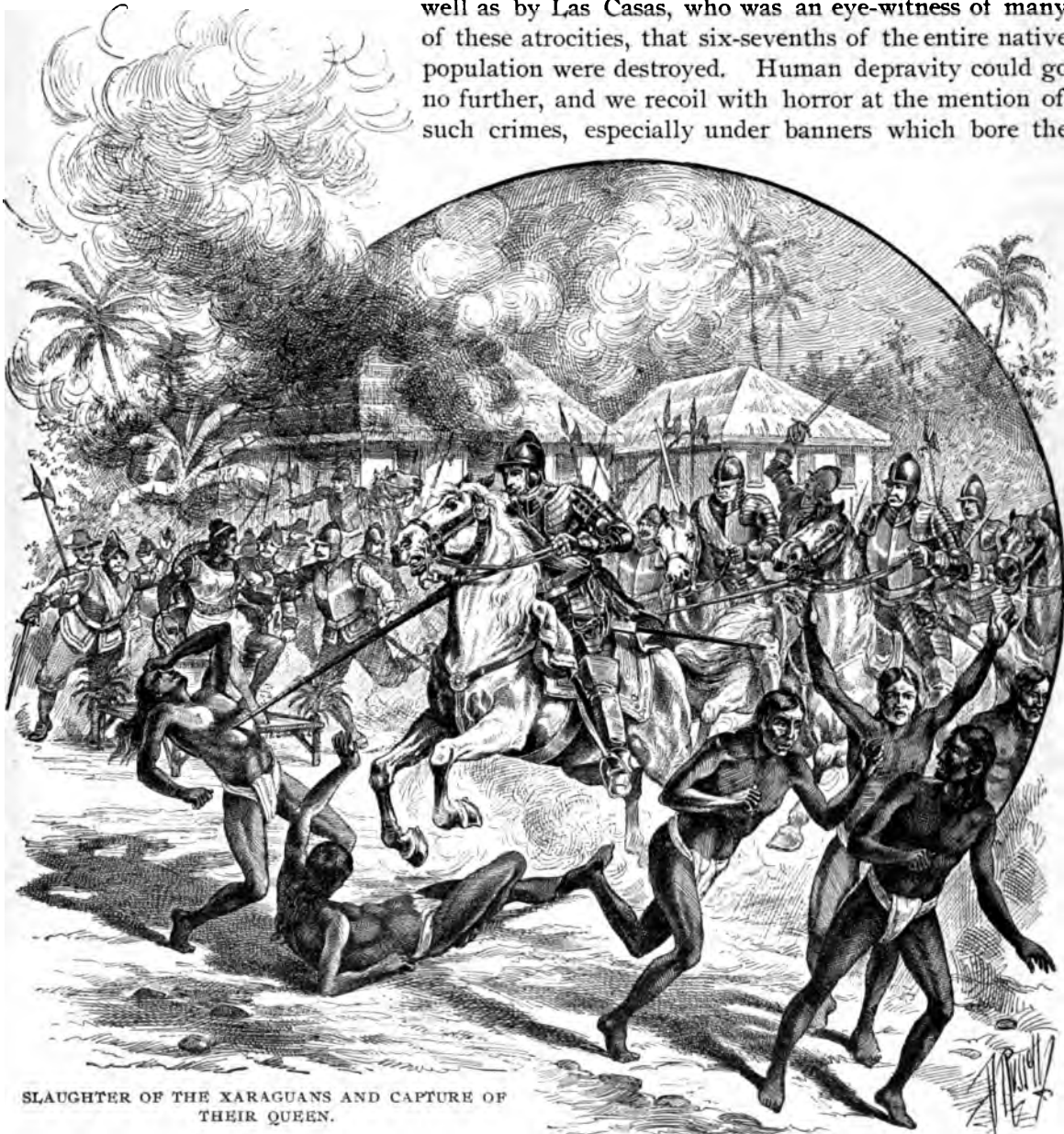
The destruction of Xaragua marked the conquest and consequent ruin of the fourth of the native kingdoms of Hispaniola. There now remained only the fifth and last, namely, the mountainous district of Xigüey. The reader will remember that it was upon the shores of this province that the first blood had been shed by Spanish soldiers in the West Indies. The people were Caribbeans by descent, and were, in the year 1504, ruled by a cacique named Cotabanama, an original Goliath of Gath. His stature is represented as being of herculean proportions, and he was no less famous for his strength, while his reputation as a great warrior was coextensive with the island. For the past twelve years the relations between the Indians of this district and the Spaniards had been strained. On one occasion a Spaniard on the coast, accompanied by his blood-hound, had hissed the brute upon one of Cotabanama's under caciques, who was torn to pieces for the sport of the foreigner. This gross outrage rankled in the breasts of the Indians, and they determined to seize the first opportunity to have their revenge. In course of time a boat bearing eight Spaniards came to the little island of Saona, in sight of the coast of Xigüey. The natives, fired with a remembrance of the horrible outrage perpetrated upon one of their innocent people, surrounded the crew and massacred them to a man. This was regarded by Governor Ovando as an insurrection, and he immediately fitted out a force of four hundred men, under command of Juan de Esquibel, to march into the Indian country, put down opposition and administer exemplary punishment for the crime.

The story of this expedition is but a repetition of others which have already been described. The Spaniards being in irresistible force marched through the Indian villages slaughtering without regard to age or sex and perpetrating cruelties which fairly shame the



race. In many instances not only men but women were hung and quartered, and other inconceivable cruelties, such as the lopping off of hands and feet of natives who had fallen into the power of the remorseless Spaniards, were practised under the name of exemplary punishments. This riot of murder continued until it is estimated by Columbus himself, as

well as by Las Casas, who was an eye-witness of many of these atrocities, that six-sevenths of the entire native population were destroyed. Human depravity could go no further, and we recoil with horror at the mention of such crimes, especially under banners which bore the



sign of the Cross and in a country which had been consecrated to the propagation of the Holy Faith. Cotabanama was hunted like a lion and refusing all overtures for peace with such human blood-hounds, he fought to the last extremity, but was finally seized in a cave in which he had taken refuge with his wife and children. Being first overpowered by a

great force he was bound in chains and carried back to San Domingo, where he was publicly executed on the gibbet as another example of the unmercifulness and rapacious cruelty of the Spaniards.

COLUMBUS SAILS FOR SPAIN.

We have seen in a former chapter in what manner Columbus was received in San Domingo after his escape from the perils which for nearly a year beset him in Jamaica. We have also mentioned the beginning of the difficulty and misunderstanding between him and the governor in the matter of De Porras and his fellow-prisoners. As to his local affairs the Admiral found them, as already stated, in an extremely unsatisfactory condition. Alonzo



MASSACRE OF THE SPANIARDS.

de Cavajal informed him on his arrival that the revenue had been held back in many instances and that his attempts to collect the same had been impeded by the covert or open opposition of the governor. Other causes for complaint existed, and the Admiral may well be excused for finding fault with Ovando's policy towards the Indians, which had almost totally obliterated the native population. But Columbus was also dissatisfied with the whole condition of his environment. The two years which had been named by the King and Queen as the limit of his suspension from office had about expired. The sensation and reaction in his favor produced by his late arrival in the colony began to wane, and he decided to return to the mother country at the earliest possible date. There before the King and Queen he would renew his plea, and he hoped to be heard by their considerate Majesties in

his own cause, to the end that they might bestow upon him justice with honor as a reward for his great toils and sacrifices. The Admiral knew not that at this very date Isabella had taken to her couch with that lingering malady strangely mingled of mental and bodily griefs from which she was never to recover.

It was not long after his arrival at San Domingo, therefore, that Columbus with the consent of the governor began to prepare for his departure for Spain. Two ships were fitted out for this purpose, the command of one being given to Don Bartholomew while the Admiral had charge of the other in person. On the 12th of September the vessels left the harbor of San Domingo, but were not far at sea when the weather became stormy and the masts of Columbus' ship were broken and carried away, rendering her unfit for the voyage. Being in haste to reach the mother country the Admiral sent back the disabled ship and transferred himself and companions to the vessel commanded by Don Bartholomew. Still the weather continued severe and the masts of the remaining vessel were likewise seriously injured, so that progress was extremely slow. Nor was this condition of affairs improved at any time during the voyage; for the weather continued at all times so extremely rough that it was not until the end of the fifty-eighth day after leaving San Domingo that the caravel carrying Columbus and his brother reached the port of San Lucar. Thus concluded the ill-starred fourth expedition of discovery on the 7th of November, 1504.

The afflicted Admiral was so exhausted by his physical sufferings that he was unable to support his own weight, and had, therefore, to be borne on shore in a litter constructed for the purpose. He was then taken at the earliest practicable moment to the city of Seville, where among his friends, attended by faithful kinsmen and loyal companions, he hoped in a short time to revive from the fatigues of his long voyage. Realizing, as he must, his failure to accomplish the glorious things which he had promised for the crowns of Castile and Aragon, harassed by enemies who had the ears of the court, it is and will ever be a matter of surprise and admiration to note the enthusiastic faith by which the veteran explorer, tottering under the accumulated griefs of years, was still borne on buoyant wings in the direction of those dreams and visions that had haunted him since the days of his youth.



CHAPTER XXI.

LAST DAYS OF COLUMBUS.



GREAT men as a rule are the victims of great embarrassments, and usually through the world's inappreciation. Those who have accomplished the most beneficent things, who have placed the greenest laurels on the brow of civilization, who have won the eternal applause of mankind and gained a place in the affections of humanity because of what they did in life, have most frequently been targets for the world's abuse. It is a proverb as lamentable as it is true that no man is fully appreciated until after he is dead. Wealth receives its honors in the flesh, while genius finds its reward only beyond the grave: because prejudice and envy cannot cast their poisonous darts across the valley of death. When a nation discovers a redeemer it is to persecute him first and worship him afterwards; hence, were it not for

monuments and the slower justice of biography, humanity would be without emulous examples, and philosophic ambition would not attain to even the shadow of a dream.

The truth of these observations is scarcely more conspicuously attested in the life of Jesus than it is in the career of Columbus, since both fell victims to the hostility of a depraved human nature in its envy of the truly good and beneficent.

While intending or implying no comparison, we may be pardoned for the sake of illustration in saying that what Jesus was in the Divine essence Columbus was in his secular character; the one perfect and, therefore, worthy of worshipful reverence as God; the other, with the imperfections of the human, entitled to the highest laudations as a man.

With the great measure of his deserving, who had practically enlarged the world by half and set in the crown of Spain a jewel so lustrous that all the gems of earth grow pale in its light, Columbus was suffered not only to remain unrequited, but his distinguished service, instead of aggrandizing, rendered him the victim of every wrong that mad envy and avarice could inflict. And these marplots under the wings of royalty pursued him even to the grave, while anger and hate would fain have disturbed him there, so implacable were these foes of justice.

Though robbed most shamefully by Bobadilla and Ovando and brought, through their conniving, to the verge of penury, yet so buoyant was the nature of Columbus that he hoped for a correction of his wrongs when he should lay his complaints before Ferdinand and Isabella. Poor and deeply afflicted though he was, and confined to his bed in Seville, he trusted to the influence of those few friends who still remained faithful to him. Among these was Diego his son, who was now of age but still in the service of the Queen as page; also his brother Don Bartholomew, Diego Mendez, Alonzo de Cavaial, a nobleman named

Geronimo, and Diego de Deza, the latter an old friend who had been elevated to the bishopric of Palencia. Through the aid of these and his own efforts, and by letters and proofs which he would lay before his sovereigns, Columbus did not doubt that he would recover the dignities and property to which he was so clearly entitled.

EFFORTS OF COLUMBUS TO RECOVER THE RIGHTS OF WHICH HE HAD BEEN DEFRAUDED.

The complaints which Columbus had to make were set forth in a lengthy communication which he addressed to their Majesties very soon after his return to Seville, and contained two specifications : 1st, That he had been deprived of his revenues, and that the rentals due from his estates in San Domingo and his percentage from the mines were withheld by officers of the crown, thus virtually reducing him to poverty ; 2d, That his honors, titles and rank which had been conferred and confirmed by royal guarantees in the form of patents and charters were jeopardized, if not nullified, by his suspension from office.

The enormity of withholding from Columbus his percentage of one-eighth, but afterwards one-tenth, of the gold gathered in Hispaniola, and his consequent reduction almost to mendicancy in his old age, may be estimated when we reflect upon the aggregate yield of the Indian mines during the administration of Ovando. The question has been carefully considered by Robertson for the year 1506. According to his estimates the yield of the mines for that and several preceding years amounted annually to a sum equal to about \$500,000. Considering the greater purchasing power of gold and silver in the sixteenth century, it would hardly be an exaggeration to say that his annual revenues from this source, had they been justly paid him, would have been equivalent in value to more than a million of dollars of our present currency. This would have given to Columbus a revenue which, apart from all other resources, would have lifted him from beggary to wealth and enabled him to prosecute his one supreme ambition of recovering the Holy Sepulchre from the possession of the Mohammedans.

In the letters which he transmitted to his sovereigns he justly complained of the withholding of his dues, saying that he was compelled to live by borrowing ; that he was unable to own in Spain a roof to shield him from the elements, and that he had no place of resort but the common inn, and that even the small charges for attention there he was unable to pay. But besides these he had other complaints to make. He reminded the sovereigns that the men who had accompanied him on his last perilous voyage had received no pay since the time of their departure, in consequence of which their families had suffered greatly for the necessaries of life. Not only did he urge the King to an immediate payment of the rewards to which the sailors were entitled, but he wrote a special letter to his son Diego urging him to remind the King of the infinite toils and perils which the sailors had endured, and that they had brought home to Spain and to all the world invaluable tidings for which their Majesties ought to thank God and rejoice.

Before sufficient time had elapsed for a reply to his communication Columbus transmitted another letter to the King, urging upon him the justice as well as the necessity of a restoration of the honors and titles of which he was virtually deprived. At the conclusion of this second letter he appended a note animadverting upon the government of Ovando, citing many facts in the provisional governor's administration about which the sovereigns ought to be greatly solicitous.

THE MENDACITY OF FERDINAND.

To these communications, however, the answers of the court were complimentary but noncommittal, since Ferdinand, anxious to annul the charters under which grants had been bestowed upon Columbus, adopted the policy of temporizing with the situation until the

beneficiary should die, an event which he had every reason to expect would not belong deferred. He argued within himself, "If we can but placate this aged and importunate Admiral for a little longer his voice and pen will both be still in the incurable paralysis of death ; after that we shall deal as we may with his son and kinsmen, taking pains always to interpose between them and their rights such excuses and obstacles as shall make their letters patent and the charters granted to the father of no effect."

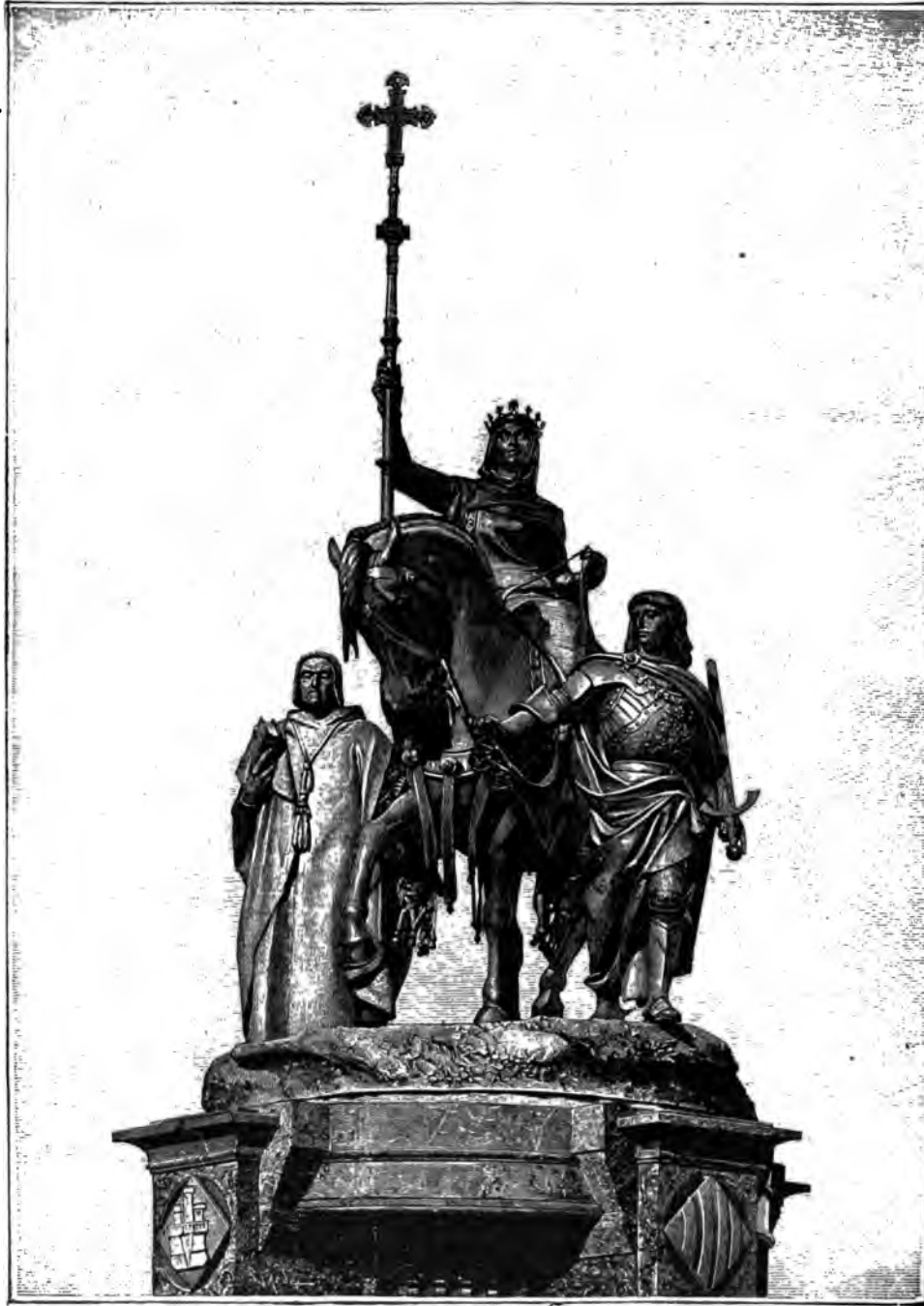
His inability to obtain any decisive answer from the King gave Columbus great worry of mind, intensified by the physical sufferings which confined him for weeks to a bed in the little inn where he had found refuge after his arrival in Spain. Preparations were being made to bring De Porras to trial under the charges which had been preferred by Columbus, and it was very necessary that he should attend at the court to give his testimony. His anxiety, therefore, was so great that he twice ordered a litter to be prepared on which he might be carried to Granada. But on both occasions the project had to be abandoned through the intensity of his sufferings and the inclemency of the weather. His friends in the meantime were exerting themselves in his behalf. But his enemies at court were more numerous and influential, and succeeded in overcoming whatever small inclination the King might have had to accord him justice. And thus, week after week and month after month was spent by Columbus in the deepest anxiety of mind, without the least indication of obtaining that which had been solemnly guaranteed by royal compact, and which he had earned through eight years of toilsome and unremitting service to the Spanish sovereigns.

THE LAST SAD HOURS OF ISABELLA.

It at last became clear to the apprehension of the suffering and despairing veteran that the King was against him and his cause. As for the Queen, who had so long been his friend and benefactress, her last days had come. Clouds and shadows darkened around her halls and chamber. Her son, the Prince Juan, was dead, while Juana, married to the Archduke Philip, had contracted an unfortunate alliance with a man whose sympathies and devotion were all abroad. The Princess herself was already, in the first years of her married life, beclouded by a mental malady through which her faculties were jangled out of tune and her mind finally brought to chaos. These troubles fell so heavily upon the Queen that she became the victim of melancholy. Disease preyed upon her and she sank under the accumulated griefs of broken womanhood. She had been the best sovereign of her age. Her abilities were great and her beauty was praised by all her contemporaries. Her application to the duties of the crown was assiduous and successful, and according to the measure of her powers and the limitations of her education she exerted herself to benefit her subjects and diffuse a generous friendship among the nations. Her true greatness and sympathy for the oppressed are evidenced by her interposition between the humble natives of the West Indies and the cruelty of her Spanish subjects. There can be no doubt that she faithfully sought to protect them from the wrongs and rapacity of her people and bring them to the standard of such poor civilization and religion as the fifteenth century could supply. How great must have been her grief when in her last days reports reached her ears of the horrible abuses practiced upon the Indians by Ovando and his colleagues. One of her last rational acts was to order his recall, and she exacted of the king a pledge that this deed of justice should be at once fulfilled, a request, however, which was wholly disregarded until circumstances five years afterwards rendered his dismissal a necessity.

Isabella fully appreciated that the day of her departure was near at hand. She had not yet reached the end of her fifty-fourth year, but her bodily powers were completely shattered and her deeply religious mind now turned almost with aversion from the noise and splendor

of the world to a contemplation of the future She accordingly prepared her will, giving particular directions not only respecting the disposition of her worldly estates, but also how



STATUE OF ISABELLA AT MADRID.

she should be buried, asking that her body might be committed to a low sepulchre in the Alhambra of Granada and that no other monument than a plain stone properly inscribed be set to mark her last resting-place. But in her dying moments she did not forget her loyalty

and devotion to the King, and among her last requests was one that she might at last be laid beside him when all the things of this earth had faded from his Majesty's view. Thus prepared for the great event, she sank away and on the 26th of November, 1504, expired at the town of Medina del Campo. Her body was conveyed with great pomp and interred according to her directions, but was afterwards transferred to a tomb in the royal chapel of the Cathedral at Granada where the King, at his death on January 23d, 1516, was buried beside her.

COLUMBUS PRESENTS HIS PETITION IN PERSON.

The news of the death of his friend and patroness was all that Columbus could bear. To that true friend of discovery for many years he had turned, like the crusader gazing on his crucifix, and now in his old age was he indeed left naked to his enemies. But deep as was his dejection over the death of his greatest friend, and supreme as were the sufferings which confined him constantly for a long while to his bed, his mind was to revive to a contemplation of glorious accomplishments of ambitions conceived even in the depth of his extremity. Continuing to petition



SEPULCHRE OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

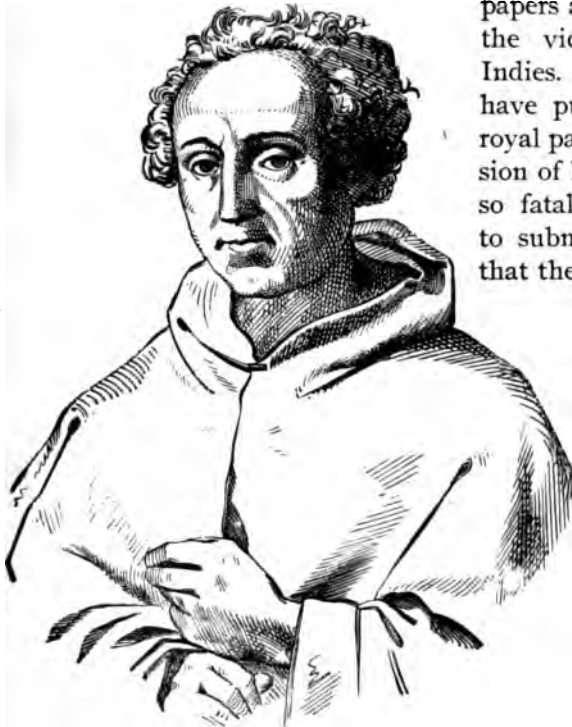


COLUMBUS, AFTER CAPRIOLA, IN ROME, 1596.

the King for a restitution of his honors and emoluments, and receiving in reply letters that constantly flattered but gave no substantial promises, Columbus at length finding himself somewhat improved decided to proceed to Segovia, to which place Ferdinand had now transferred his court, and renew in person the importunities which had thus far proved wholly unavailing. At this time there was a government edict forbidding people to ride on mules, as it was reckoned that the introduction of these cheap and easy-going animals as a means of conveyance had distracted attention from the production of horses, in consequence of which the breeds of the latter had become deteriorated. Columbus, therefore, desiring to make his journey on this safer conveyance, asked permission of the proper authorities at Seville to make the trip on mule-back. This being granted, in May, 1505, he set out, accompanied by a few faithful attendants, for the Spanish court.

The arrival of the Admiral at Segovia was attended with no excitement. The people gazed on him merely as an old, broken-down, sorrowful and disappointed man, whose deeds were already forgotten in the public mind and who from an object of great pomp and cir-

cumstance had fallen to a condition so lowly as no longer to attract the attention of any of the populace. The King, however, granted him an audience and even made a pretense of receiving him with accustomed cordiality. He condescended also to hear from the discoverer an account of the fourth expedition and its results. Columbus accordingly narrated the whole, emphasizing in particular the value of the gold mines of Veragua and indicating the benefits which might accrue from the establishment of colonies on that coast. While the King affected interest in the narrative, at the conclusion of the interview he dismissed the Admiral with no substantial evidence of a purpose to restore him to the honors of which he had been so unjustly deprived. But Columbus continued to persist in his demands until the King, as a means of freeing himself from the annoyance of importunity, proposed to refer his claims to arbitration. To this Columbus consented, until he discovered in the



COLUMBUS, AFTER PAOLI CAPRIOLA, IN MADRID GALLERY.

papers an agreement to likewise refer his rights to the viceroyalty and governor-generalship of the Indies. As an agreement to such arbitration would have put in debate his titles for which he held the royal patents Columbus, could not, while in the possession of his senses, consent to the opening of a question so fatal to all his rights. He accordingly declined to submit his major claim to arbitration, since about that there was under his charter no possible doubt.

The whole matter was accordingly put aside and the conference of arbitration was never held.

**A PATHETIC APPEAL TO THE HONOR OF A
PERFIDIOUS KING.**

After this miscarriage of his claims Columbus renewed his persistence with the Sovereign for a restitution of his honors and for such a decree as would compel the officers of Hispaniola to pay him his dues. He appealed to the conscience and justice of the King to save him in his old age from the hardships of poverty and the shame of dishonor. But month after month continued to roll by, and though Ferdinand treated him with marks of suitable regard, and continued

to be effusive with his deceptive assurances, all favorable action was postponed or evaded.

The last formal effort made by Columbus with King Ferdinand related to the young man Diego. To him the fond father looked as his successor and defender of his fame. The jeopardy in which his titles stood admonished the Admiral that the time had arrived when it was advisable for him to abdicate all his claims in favor of his son. In pursuance of this design he sent a last petition to his Sovereign, in which he solemnly proposed to waive his own rights and honors in favor of Diego. He besought the King to confirm the youth under the charters granted to himself in the government of the Indies and in the prerogatives and benefits of which he had been unwarrantably deprived so long. But this petition, as had been the former, was evaded by Ferdinand, and it became evident, even to the persistent spirit of the discoverer of the New World, that he had nothing further

to expect from his Catholic Majesty of Spain. Sorrowfully he says in a letter to the Archbishop of Seville: "It appears that his Majesty does not see fit to fulfil that which he and the Queen (who is now in glory) promised me by word and seal. For me to contend with the contrary would be to contend with the wind."

The end of 1505 was now near at hand, having been spent in a fruitless effort to vindicate his rights and to persuade the King to do a simple act of justice as some recompense for the imperishable glory which Columbus had reflected upon his crown. Confined to his bed at a tavern in Segovia, Columbus was now as hopeless in mind as he was infirm in body. Yet out of this suffering condition he was aroused in the following year by a rumor, soon confirmed, that the Princess Juana and the Archduke Philip, her husband, were on their way from Seville to Valladolid, to which place the King had removed his court from Segovia. A brief hope seems to have been inspired in him by this incident, and though in the tortures of old age and infirmity, he determined to seek an audience with their Highnesses. After proceeding a short way, however, his extreme sufferings admonished him of the impossibility of carrying out his intentions, and he was reduced to the necessity of preparing a communication to their Highnesses which he transmitted through his brother Don Bartholomew. In this letter he made profession of his profound loyalty and devotion to the Spanish crown and described the severe afflictions and numberless misfortunes by which he was detained from going to them in person. In the most touching language he reminded them of the great things which he had accomplished for the glory of Castile first and the honor of mankind afterwards, and followed this with a touching tribute to the virtues of her mother, the Queen.

THE LAST GOLDEN DREAM OF COLUMBUS.

In penning his letter, which evidently aroused in him ambitions as intense as those which prompted him to his first voyage, he described with glowing enthusiasm the vision which now arose in dazzling splendor before him. Long cherished hopes and aspirations revived like a dying flame, and the aged breast, storm-beaten and exhausted, throbbed and heaved with the fires of an expiring enthusiasm. Old, infirm, tottering on the very brink of the grave as he was, he yet told the Princess that still greater things remained for him to accomplish. It was of course the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from the infidel Islamites. That great enterprise, most famous of all his ambitions, he declared he could yet undertake and accomplish if her Highness, after the manner of her noble mother, would hear him for his cause. Nothing in human history has a touch of greater sublimity than this dying passion of a decrepit and worn-out man, rising as it were from the couch of his penury and despair to place himself at the head of an army of Spanish crusaders to wrest the City of David from the hated Moslemites.

It is on record that the appeal of Columbus had its due effect upon the princess and her husband. They gave assurances that the cause of the Admiral should receive their earliest attention, the sincerity of which declaration was shown in the cordial reception



COLUMBUS, AFTER A PAINTING MADE BY
ORDER OF ISABELLA.

of Don Bartholomew and the great interest which the communication evidently excited. But however encouraging the reply of their Highnesses, he for whom the tidings were intended was never to know the results of the message which his brother was prepared to bring from the daughter of Isabella. It may well be believed that the expiring force of his great spirit was exhausted in the composition of the letter to Juana and her husband. At all events, after the departure of Bartholomew he sank back upon his couch and never again rallied to his accustomed animation. He was able between the first and middle of May to prepare one or possibly two codicils to his will, in which he made a more particular disposition of his property. He divided his possessions as though all the revenues to which he was entitled would be paid to his legitimate heirs, and he consequently made provision not only for his immediate but even remote relatives, and besides setting aside an annuity for his brothers and Dona Beatrix Enriquez, mother of Fernando, he ordered that certain sums might be used for the benefit of others to whom he had become indebted, and also for the establishing of a charitable institution in Genoa. Besides these bequests the Admiral gave small sums to certain companions and servants whose fidelity had won his trust, among these being Bartholomew Fiesco, the companion of Diego Mendez in the perilous



DEATH OF COLUMBUS.

canoe voyage from Jamaica to Hispaniola; nor did he forget Diego Mendez, whom he recommended to the sovereigns for appointment as governor of some of the West Indian possessions.

THE DEATH OF COLUMBUS.

Thus was accomplished the last act in

the life of Christopher Columbus. Death was now at his door. But the Admiral had become so weak through his sufferings that he hailed him as a welcome guest.

The glories, the pride, and the lofty ambitions which bound him to earth were now dissolving into clouds, behind which were for the moment concealed those greater and more substantial rewards for which his benignant soul thirsted. Cruel destiny, unfathomable wrongs, had denied him a death-bed in a courtly chamber invested with the luxury which kings enjoy infinitely less worthily, but had consigned him to a room that bespoke the poor comforts of a miserable little hotel. No mementos of art, no rich fabrics of the weaver's loom, but with bare floors and walls hung with no other decorations than the chains which had bound him as the seal of a king's ingratitude! There on a bed of pain, forgotten by those whom he had enriched with a measureless opulence, he lay watching the advancing shadows that were obscuring the world, and noted the roseate hues that reveal the approach of eternal day breaking beyond. Beside him were sorrowful watchers in the persons of his two sons, the devoted Fiesco and some Franciscan fathers, who in fulfilment of his last wishes had clothed him in the habit of the Third Order of St. Francis and prepared him for the last struggle. His mind continued clear even to the moment of dissolution. After exhorting with pious admonitions his sons, he received the sacrament of Penance, then requested that the chains which he had worn as the badge of a nation's shame might be

buried with him. The remembrance of the wrongs he had suffered, which his shackles recalled, appeared to somewhat revive him, and he talked for a while in great seriousness of mind on spiritual matters, indicating that in these was his sole concern in the last hours of his life. When again he felt the chilling paralysis of death stealing over him he asked for the Sacrament of Extreme Unction, and was able to give all the responses himself; but his pulse was feeble and his breath came fitfully. Turning his head slightly in a last movement towards the Franciscan father, who stood sorrowfully awaiting the final summons, he asked in broken speech if it were not Ascension day. Receiving an affirmative reply, his face appeared to be illumined with intense satisfaction as he repeated the words of our expiring Saviour on the cross: *In manus tuas, Domine, commendo spiritum meum*. "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit." In this wise, on May 20, 1506, he fell into that sleep which is eternal waking, and his great soul that had been so violently tempest-tossed in the turbulencies of a stormy life sailed now across peaceful waters and entered a harbor where the anchorage is secure and where faithful service meets a just reward. His age was about seventy years.

Ferdinand had succeeded in his infamous policy of evading the claims of one of the most importunate men who had ever haunted his court in quest of justice and restitution. The silent form lying in Valladolid could never trouble him further. The great Admiral was gone from earth to that higher King who would restore to him not only the rights for which he had vainly contended, but grant unto him a crown as a reward for the incomparably great services he had rendered to the world. The Sovereign might well assume the virtue of sorrow, particularly when he saw that the death of Columbus produced a great sensation in the kingdom, the people at this late hour beginning to appreciate the lustre which he had reflected upon their country. Preparations were therefore made for an elaborate funeral, which was celebrated with much pomp in the city where the Admiral died, and his body was interred with great civic honors in the parochial church of Santa Maria de la Antigua.



HOUSE IN WHICH COLUMBUS DIED.

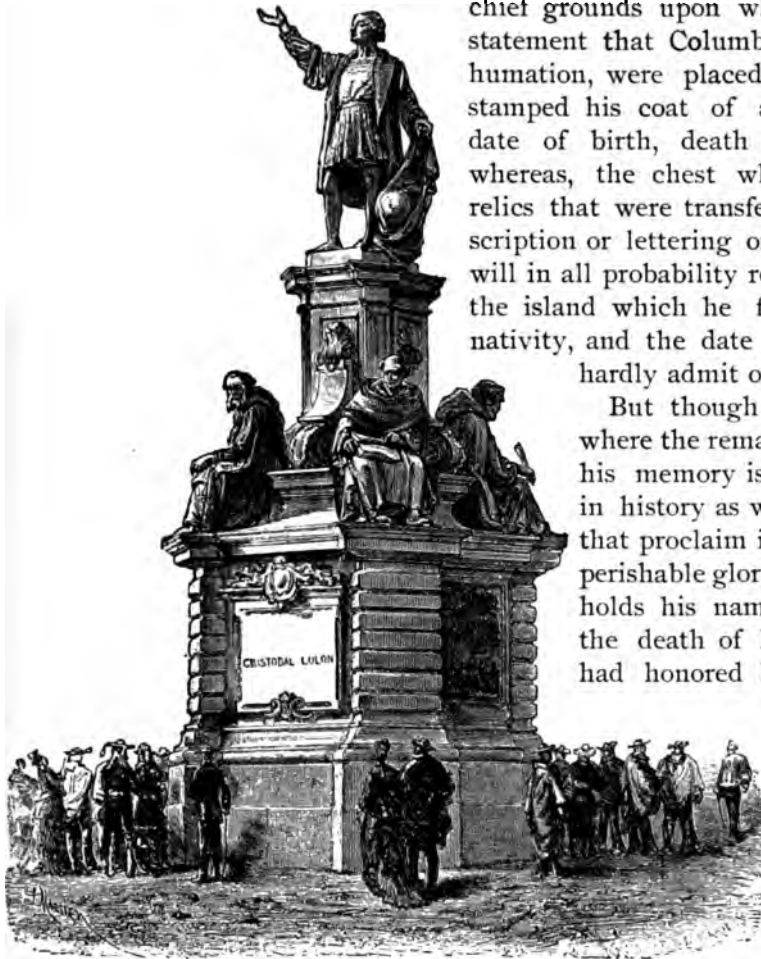
After seven years, or in 1513, the remains of the discoverer were transferred to the Carthusian monastery of Las Cuevas, in Seville, where in the chapel of Santo Christo the body was for a second time committed to the sepulchre. There it reposed for twenty-three years. In February, 1526, Don Diego, the son and successor of the Admiral, died and was entombed by the side of his father in the monastery. But ten years afterwards the bodies of both father and son were exhumed and transferred to Hispaniola, where they were re-interred in the chapel of the Cathedral at San Domingo. Here it might well be supposed they would remain forever in the soil of the beautiful land which he had discovered and settled, but which had been despoiled by the ruthless hand of the avaricious Spaniards. In 1795-96 the island of Hispaniola, however, was ceded by Spain to France, when it was reckoned as a fitting thing that the remains of the discoverer of a new world should be again disturbed and committed to a soil above which the flag of Spain still floated. A commis-

sioner was, therefore, appointed to transfer the sacred relics to the Cathedral of Havana in the island of Cuba, where it was supposed, until within the last few years, they reposed.

Investigation recently made by a learned German historian has led to the belief that the relics found reposing in a square casket in a recess of the Cathedral sanctuary of San Domingo and conveyed with such military pomp and religious ceremony to the Cathedral of Havana were not the bones of Columbus, but were those of some ecclesiastical dignitary whose remains had been committed to the sacred crypt in a casket without inscription. The

chief grounds upon which this opinion rests is the statement that Columbus' bones, after the third exhumation, were placed in a reliquary on which was stamped his coat of arms, list of his titles, name, date of birth, death and time of last removal; whereas, the chest which contained the mortuary relics that were transferred to Cuba was without inscription or lettering of any kind. But this question will in all probability remain as long in contention as the island which he first sighted, the place of his nativity, and the date of his birth, disputes which hardly admit of conclusive settlement.

But though we may not positively know where the remains of the great Admiral repose, his memory is no less effectually preserved in history as well as by monumental tributes that proclaim in granite and marble the imperishable glory and honor in which the world holds his name and deeds. Already before the death of King Ferdinand that monarch had honored himself rather than the discoverer of America by ordering a monument to his memory. This was done while the remains of Columbus were still sleeping in the monastery of Las Cuevas. The tomb was said to be worthy of the great man to whom it was erected. The inscription already granted as a



COLUMBUS MONUMENT IN MEXICO.

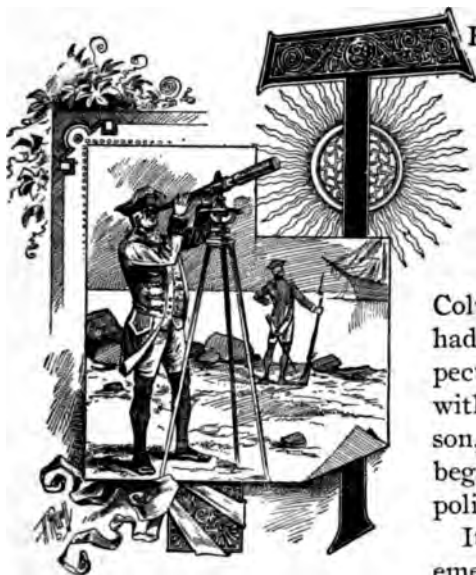
motto to Columbus by his sovereigns was repeated in his epitaph:

"A CASTILLA Y A LEON
NUEVA MUNDO DIO COLON."

"To Castile and Leon Columbus gave a New World."

CHAPTER XXII.

CAREERS OF THE COLUMBIAN DESCENDANTS.



THE life of Columbus may be fittingly concluded with some account of his descendants, of their success in maintaining their rights and their vicissitudes of fortune down to the time when the male line of the Admiral became extinct. No sooner was his father's body put into the tomb than the young Don Diego came forward and claimed under the will all the rights, prerogatives, titles and emoluments which Columbus had enjoyed and of which in recent years he had been so unjustly deprived. It was hardly to be expected, however, that Ferdinand, who had dealt so unjustly with the father, would be more liberal and just with the son, and we are not surprised, therefore, to learn that he began at once to employ the same temporizing and crafty policy which he had so successfully used with the father.

It was not long until the King was drawn by the emergencies of his reign into Italy, but not until he had conceded to Don Diego, first at Villa Franca in June of 1506, and afterwards at Almazan in August of 1507, what may be called his commercial and property rights under the testament of his father. This was, in a word, a grant that the one-tenth of the revenues derived and derivable from the Indies and *terra firma* discovered by Columbus in the West should go to his son. But Don Diego, like his father, was more concerned about his titles, his rank, his honors as viceroy and governor-general, than he was about his dues and percentages of gold. The young Admiral accordingly lost no opportunity of representing his claims to the King, and finally made bold to ask the Sovereign in so many words whether he would or would not invest him with the titles which had been granted to his father. The question being thus explicitly put the King could no longer temporize and was thus made to express his will. He therefore refused, and as an excuse for so doing brought forth a principle of the Spanish constitution, reaffirmed by an edict of 1480, that henceforth no grant in perpetuity should be made of any office by the crown which involved the exercise of judicial functions. He claimed that the viceroyalty of the Indies was of this interdicted kind and that, therefore, though he himself by the stipulations and agreements of 1492 had given such a title to Columbus, the same was unconstitutional and invalid.

After the return of the King from Naples, in 1508, Don Diego again renewed his claim, but this time in another form. He respectfully petitioned the Sovereign for the privilege of instituting a suit against the crown before the Council of the Indies in which his cause, and involving therewith the cause of his father, should be legally heard and decided. The request was granted and the suit was accordingly instituted, continuing for more than a year and resulting in the triumphant establishing of Don Diego's claims. The crown was

fairly beaten, and it only remained for the young Admiral, under judgment of the court, to assume the titles and honors of which his father had been so long deprived.

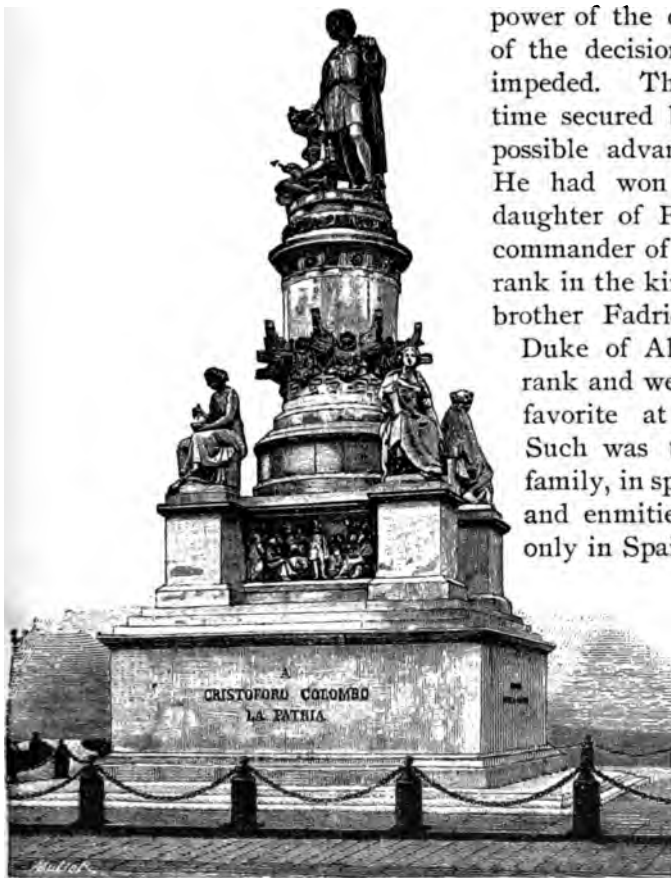
This trial occupied a great part of the years 1508-9 and the record, which has been investigated by the historian Muñoz, is of great value as throwing light upon all the Columbian controversy. The defence of the crown was first of all that above stated, namely, that an entailed viceroyalty granted to Columbus was only for his natural life; that even this power had been limited by the suspension of the Admiral from office; that moreover, Columbus had not been, as was claimed, the first discoverer of *terra firma* but only of the Indian islands; and that finally the crown of Spain must defend itself and its prerogatives against the tendency of unconstitutional and dangerous acts as a measure of self-protected and perpetuity.

ADVANTAGEOUS MARRIAGE OF DON DIEGO.

All of these questions were ably and impartially considered before the tribunal, and though decided in favor of Don Diego, the nature of the Spanish administration and the

power of the crown were such that the application of the decision to Diego's rights was for a while impeded. The young man, however, had by this time secured by marriage an alliance of the greatest possible advantage to himself and his posterity. He had won the heart of Doña Maria de Toledo, daughter of Fernando de Toledo, who was grand commander of Leon and a man of great influence and rank in the kingdom. Greater even than he was his brother Fadrique de Toledo, better known as the Duke of Alva, who was not only powerful by his rank and wealth and talents, but was personally a favorite at court and with the King himself. Such was the reputation which the Columbian family, in spite of its foreign origin and the intrigues and enmities of hostile factions, had attained not only in Spain, but in all the world, that the two princes of Toledo, one the father and the other the uncle of Doña Maria, assented to the marriage of that noble lady to Don Diego. Thus was secured an alliance whereby the Columbian line was to be blent with that of the ancient Spanish nobility.

In view of this condition and relationship Ferdinand gave a reluctant and cold assent to the validity of the judicial decision; but at the same

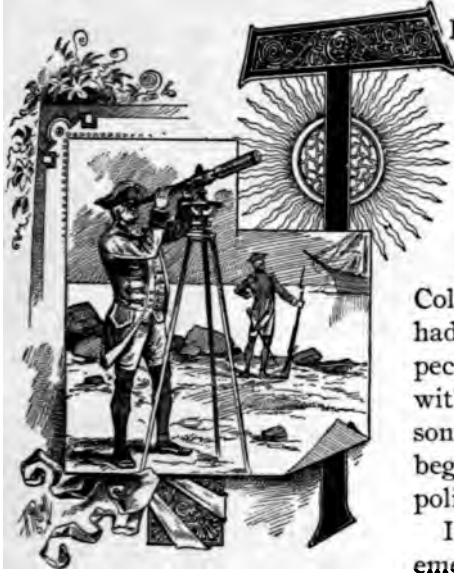


MONUMENT TO COLUMBUS IN GENOA.

time he would go no further than to concede to Don Diego the same dignity and rights which had been for some years and were now enjoyed by Ovando, governor of Hispaniola. This construction cunningly excluded the title of viceroy, and possibly excluded the extension of the young Admiral's rights to other islands and to *terra firma*. Nevertheless, in a general way, it was agreed that Don Diego should assume the titular

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dignity of viceroy and that his noble spouse should be recognized as Vice-Queen of the Indies.

Such was the termination of the famous controversy. Up to this date Ferdinand had failed to comply with the promise which he had made to the dying Isabella, to recall Ovando. Circumstances now rendered this long-deferred duty imperative, and in 1509 it was accordingly performed. The young Admiral prepared for his voyage to the Indies, gathering around him many noble and courtly people who were to accompany him to San Domingo and compose his court. His uncles, Don Bartholomew, and Don Diego, senior, were of his retinue. By the beginning of summer, 1509, everything was in readiness, and the fleet prepared for the occasion sailed on the 9th of June from the harbor of San Lucar. Diego arrived at his destination and assumed the government of Hispaniola, which he began to administer with great ceremony and splendor. Ovando was relieved of his duties and sent home with the returning fleet; but he went away in wealth and honor, and the purpose of Isabella to prosecute him for his crime in murdering the innocent people of Xaragua, and in particular for the execution of Anacaona, perished with her merciful Majesty.

It was not long after Don Diego had assumed the government of his island before the purpose of Ferdinand with respect to the Indies was clearly manifested. A royal decree was framed by which the coast of Darien was detached from all connection with the insular parts and was divided into two provinces, the governorship of one of which was assigned to Alonzo de Ojeda and the other to Diego de Nicuesa. This act was resented and resisted by the Governor of the Indies, but all to no purpose. The slow and toilsome processes of history went on and the wishes of Diego Columbus were disregarded, for his vice-royalty was in name rather than in fact.

It was evidently the purpose of the King that the authority of Diego should be restricted to Hispaniola, or at most to the Indian islands. It was clearly not intended that his jurisdiction should extend to that *terra firma* which was a part, indeed the principal part, as the event was soon to show, of the new lands discovered by the first Admiral. This conflict of purpose was from the beginning a source of embarrassment and distrust between the crown and the young Governor of the Indies.

ASSUMPTION OF THE GOVERNORSHIP OF THE INDIES.

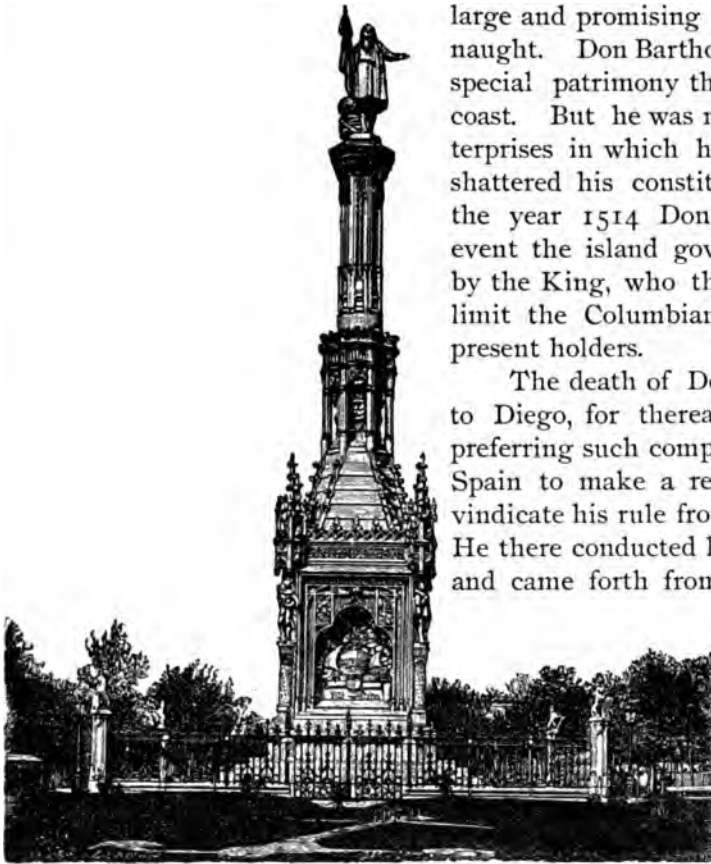
Diego however entered upon his government with much spirit and with many magnanimous purposes. Like his father he was an optimist, and like his father he was destined to inherit perplexity and disappointment from the age and the people with whom he had to deal. He soon found that the malcontent, jealous and insubordinate dispositions with which the Admiral had had to contend had been transmitted to himself. First of all a certain Miguel Pasamonte, who was the royal treasurer of the island, became the head of an anti-administration party, the motive of which was an ostentatious devotion to the interests of the Spanish crown.

With this movement Fonseca, head of the Indian Bureau and now a privy councillor of the King, was in hearty accord. Not satisfied with having pursued the elder Admiral to his last day he now took up and renewed the warfare on the younger. Nevertheless Don Diego for a season held his own and presently added laurels and palms to his administration by the peaceable occupation or conquest—if conquest it might be called which brought no shedding of blood—of Cuba. This event took place in 1510 and was at once reported to the King.

Meanwhile the opposition to the government of Don Diego acquired much strength and many complaints were sent home to Spain against him. At length, in 1512, the King gave attention to these murmurings to the extent of sending Don Bartholomew to assist the young Admiral in the duties of his administration. Another circumstance also induced Ferdinand to show this mark of confidence in Bartholomew, and that was the recent failure of both the royal governors in Panama. Ojeda and Nicuesa, with their governments, went by the board; and the King was constrained, under the circumstances, to recognize the rights of Don Diego on the mainland of the isthmus.

DEATH OF BARTHOLOMEW.

Ferdinand accordingly directed that Don Bartholomew should repair to Veragua and assume the duties of governor under the more general authority of his nephew. But this



COLUMBIAN MONUMENT IN MADRID.

large and promising scheme was destined to come to naught. Don Bartholomew had already received as his special patrimony the island of Mona, off the Cuban coast. But he was now an old man; the arduous enterprises in which he had been so long engaged had shattered his constitution. Sickness came on and in the year 1514 Don Bartholomew died, upon which event the island government of Mona was recovered by the King, who thus again showed his disposition to limit the Columbian grants to the life or lives of the present holders.

The death of Don Bartholomew was a serious loss to Diego, for thereafter his enemies became bold in preferring such complaints that in 1515 he was called to Spain to make a report of his administration and to vindicate his rule from the charges brought against him. He there conducted his defence with the greatest ability and came forth from the inquest with a flying banner.

It is probable that had Ferdinand lived he would henceforth have resolutely supported the governor and repressed his enemies, but the King himself now came swiftly to the closing scene. On the 23d of January, 1516, he died, transmitting his crown as the world knows well, to his grandson, that Charles V. who

was destined to be for more than a quarter of a century the most conspicuous figure of the age. Henceforth Don Diego was thrown into relations with the new sovereign, the vastness of whose inheritance, the complications of whose reign were so pressing and multifarious as to make it almost impracticable for him to give adequate attention to the affairs of the Indies.

In the meantime a new historical force had become operative in Hispaniola, which was destined to enter largely into the general movements of civilization in the New World and to cast its shadow, portentous and vast, across the annals of several centuries. This was

the introduction, first into Hispaniola and afterwards into all the West Indies and Spanish America, of negro slavery. By the time of which we speak, namely about 1515, the Indian inhabitants of Hispaniola had been virtually exterminated. A disconsolate and despairing remnant survived from the horrors of the war and the repartimiento. But the survivors were weak and inefficient even under the lash of the master.

INTRODUCTION OF SLAVES FROM AFRICA.

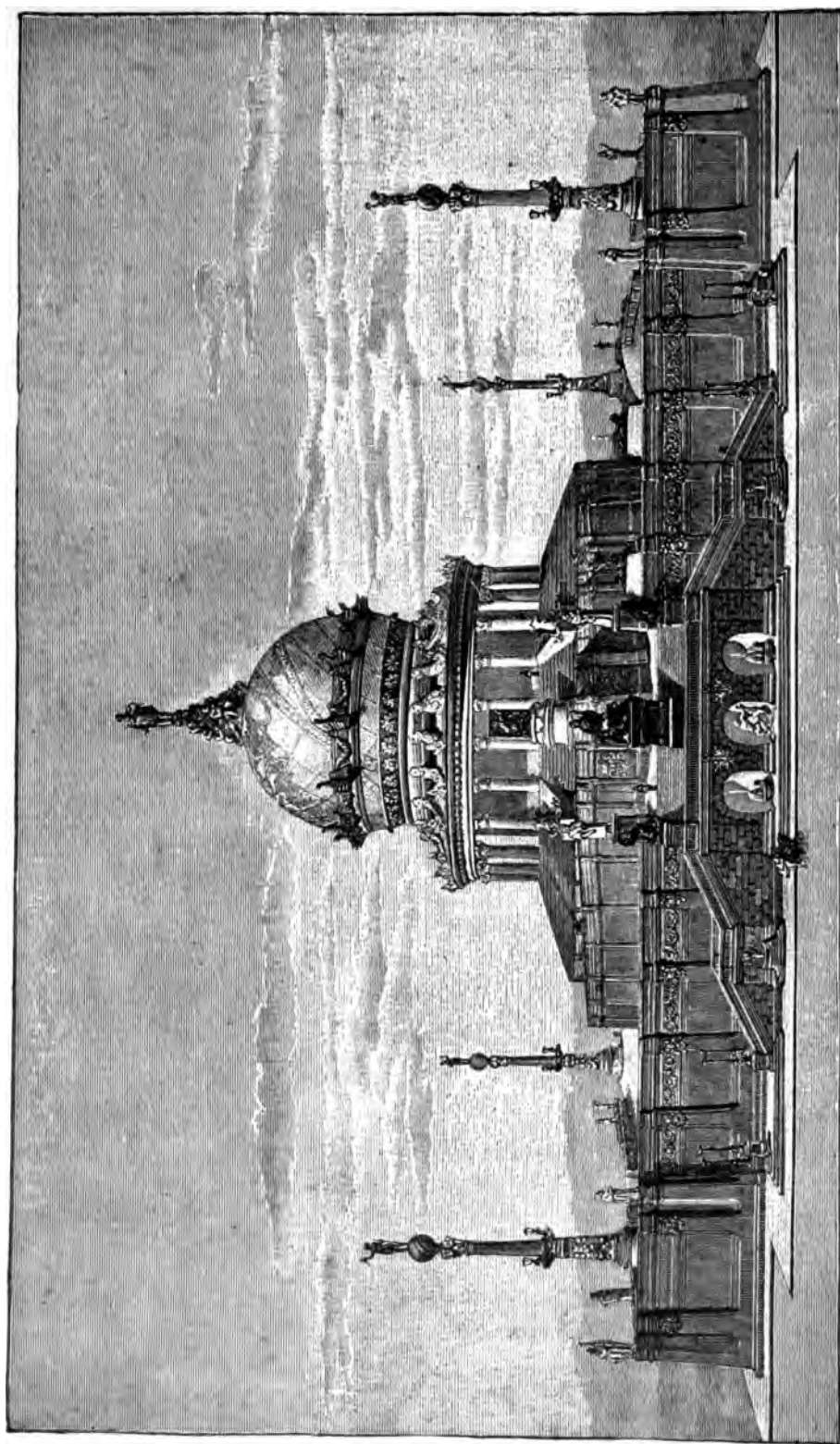
The necessity, or at least the advantage, of slave labor had increased as the native slaves were decimated and swept away, and to supply such labor the suggestion of kidnapping and transporting slaves from Africa was heartily received and adopted. Some shiploads of Guinea negroes were brought over, and it was soon found that they were able to endure the severest trials and cruelties of servitude. The trade became at once popular, and the great infamy of modern times was established under the auspices of the Spanish crown in the new countries which Spanish enterprise had revealed and opened for occupation.

It was not long, however, until the system of servile labor brought a measure of retribution to those by whom it was instituted. In 1522 a negro revolt broke out in Hispaniola, and it was accompanied with much violence and destruction of life and property before it could be suppressed.

Don Diego had now established his family on what appeared to be an excellent foundation. Five children had already been born of his union with Doña Maria de Toledo. These were two sons, Luis and Christopher, and three daughters, Maria, Juana and Isabella. The Columbian line seemed in fairest prospect of perpetuity and honor, but Don Diego himself was involved in ever-recurring difficulties with the crown. This is to say that his enemies in Hispaniola and the enemies of his family in Spain were constantly active and embroiled him once and again in serious complications with the young Emperor. To counteract the evil influence of his enemies Diego was obliged to spend the last years of his life in Spain, following the court from place to place and seeking to obtain redress, or a vindication of his conduct and the re-establishment of his rights and honors.

Doña Maria, acting as Vice-Queen of the Indies, remained with her sons and daughters in San Domingo. Don Diego's death occurred at the town of Montalvan on the 21st of February, 1526. His rights and titles and honors were transmitted by will, and in accordance with the principles of primogeniture, to his oldest son, Don Luis, who became his successor under the authority of the mother. At the time of his father's death Don Luis was but six years of age, and Doña Maria deemed it expedient to go to Spain and have him confirmed in the government which had been derived from his grandfather. An audience was obtained from the young Empress, and the rights and titles of the third Admiral were confirmed, with the *exception* that the title of viceroy was refused to Don Luis by the Emperor.

A period of comparative quiet now ensued, covering the minority of the third Admiral. In 1538 Don Luis brought suit before the Council of the Indies for the recovery of his title as viceroy. Institution of these proceedings resulted in the question being submitted to arbitration, by which it was declared that henceforth the political honors of Don Luis should be embraced under the two titles of "Admiral of the Indies" and "Captain-General of Hispaniola." In course of time a second compromise was made, in which the young governor accepted as a finality the titles of "Duke of Veragua" and "Marquis of Jamaica," instead of the more comprehensive and honorable and significant title of viceroy of the Indies.



COLUMBIAN MONUMENT PROJECTED BY JOSÉ MARÍN BALDO, AT THE MOUTH OF THE ODIEL RIVER NEAR PALOS.

DEATH OF DON LUIS.

Nor was Don Luis permitted to enjoy for any great time the smaller honors which had been substituted for the greater. He died about 1542 leaving two legitimate daughters by his wife, Doña Maria de Mosquera, and one illegitimate son named Christopher. The younger of the two daughters entered a convent and became a nun, and the claim of Don Luis seemed to rest upon his remaining daughter Philippa. The fact of the death of Don Luis without a legitimate son terminated the right male line of Christopher Columbus, and brought in shortly afterwards one of the most complicated and, indeed, important lawsuits of the century. There were many parties to the cause, each having his own interests to conserve, and the issue involved the consideration of the whole Columbian generation from the period before the birth of the great Admiral down to the close of the sixteenth century.

The three daughters of the late Don Diego had all been married to important personages. Maria, the eldest, was wedded to Don Sancho de Cardono; Juana, the second, was married to Don Luis de Cueva, and Isabella, the third, to Don George of Portugal, Count of Gelves. There stood also in the field of view as a claimant the illegitimate Christopher, son of Don Luis, and in particular his legitimate daughter Philippa. Moreover, Don Diego Columbus, the second Admiral, had two sisters, Francisca and Maria, who came forward and entered their claims in virtue of collateral descent.

Meanwhile a distant and rather factitious figure arose in the person of Bernardo Columbo, of Cogoletto, who declared himself to be a natural son of Don Bartholomew. Still more remotely and strangely appeared the figure of Balthazar Colombo, of the ancient house of Cuccaro, the existence of which the reader will recall from one of the earlier chapters of the present work. Balthazar came forward with a family scheme, showing that a certain Domenico Colombo, who was lord of Cuccaro, was the father of Christopher Colombo of great fame. The Cuccaro Colombos were descended from Domenico; therefore they were the collateral kinsmen of the late Admirals, and they having become extinct in their male line their rights had passed to the Italian branch.

Such was the vast and peculiar complication which had now to be settled in a judicial



COLUMBIAN MONUMENT DESIGNED BY JOSÉ DE MANJARRÉS.

inquiry before the Council of the Indies. In the first place the decision, which was rendered on the 2d of December, 1608, declared the legal extinction of the male line of Christopher Columbus. In the next place the claims of Balthazar Colombo were under indubitable proofs put aside as spurious. In the third place the family of Doña Isabella, married as above to Don George of Portugal—she being the sister of Don Luis, the third Admiral—was selected as the true line of Columbian descent. At the time of the decision this family was represented by Don Nuño Gelves de Portugallo, grandson of Doña Isabella above referred to, who according to the decision of the court became Duke of Veragua. The Don George of Portugal, grandfather of Don Nuño, was himself one of the collateral princes of the House of Bragança, and here the political and civil honors, the titles, ranks and privileges granted aforetime to Christopher Columbus by Ferdinand and Isabella were made finally to rest. The issue was sufficiently strange in the denouement and sufficiently instructive to the student of biography.



PART III.



COLUMBIA.

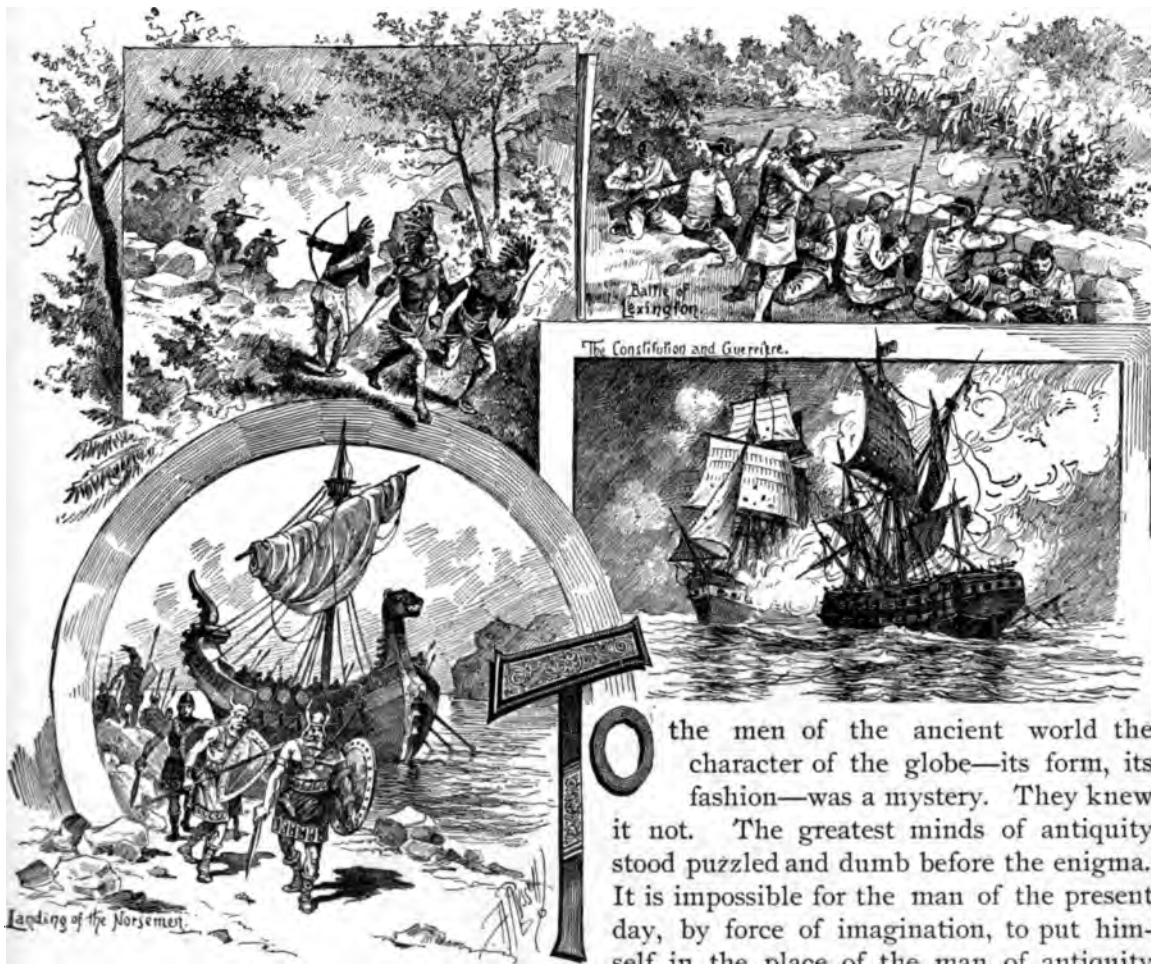
BY JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.

BOOK FIRST.

Epoch of Discovery and Planting.

CHAPTER I.

REVELATION OF THE NEW WORLD.



and consider the earth, the sun and the stars as he considered them. With the lapse of time, the increase of knowledge and the diffusion of light, the mystery has cleared away, the unknown has become the known. The sky is no longer a curtain and the ocean no longer a boundless deep. The earth is no longer an impossible plain held up from below by mythical monsters and carried forward through an impossible panorama of seasons and

vicissitudes. All things have been resolved from doubt into certainty. The fogs of fear and superstition have been tossed afar by the salubrious wind, and though man does not know all, he does know much of the sphere which he inhabits, the nature of things and the system of universal nature.

The revelation of the form and bigness of the earth was long retarded. It seemed that the darkness of the ancient and mediæval night would never give place to day. Every form of ignorance and every spirit of superstition, all the misconceptions of the past and all the folly and fears of the present stood in the way and brandished weapons and torches like goblins of the night. Nothing less than the sublime law of progress, under the reign of which the old and hurtful darkness gives place at length to the new and beautiful dawn, could have availed to bring in a newer and truer concept of the world and to fix it as an unchangeable scientific belief in the minds of men.

It were an impossible task to discover the origin of the new opinions respecting the form and figure of the earth. It appears that the old belief was never satisfying to the great minds of antiquity. In the writings of Aristotle we already catch glimpses of a conjecture that the earth is a sphere and not a plain. The popular mythology did not suffice with men like Socrates and his companions and followers, and they reached out vaguely to frame each for himself a concept of the world on which he enacted the brief drama of his life.

But scientific views of nature were soon lost in the decadence and darkness that followed the Classical ages. The decline of the Roman Empire was coincident with a decline in the human mind. The triumph of the Goths was not only the triumph of physical violence over the remains of order and civilization, but it was also the victory of ancient barbaric thought over the science, the philosophy and learning which had flourished for a season under the auspices of Greek and Roman scholars. The Christian church at length fell into league with the barbarians, and though ever struggling with their brutalities and looking backward with yearning and regret to the vast and orderly society which had flourished under the Empire, she herself became in a measure as barbarous as the world around her.

STRANGE THEORIES OF ANCIENT GEOGRAPHERS.

Then it was that the Ptolemaic system of the universe was accepted, believed and taught not only as a part of science, but as one of the fundamentals of religious truth. The earth was the centre of all things. Around it circled the sun and moon and stars. On all sides the oceans washed the unknown shores. Goblins hovered over the deep. Nature was a mystery which it was sacrilege to investigate, and the world was a problem which none might solve.

Such was the condition of the human mind with regard to our planet during the Middle Ages. Meanwhile nature herself began to be revealed without the purpose and conceit of man. The Western Hemisphere is no doubt as old and perhaps older than the Eastern. It is probable that the two Americas came out of the primeval waters at an earlier period in geological history than did the western parts of Europe. It is also possible that the aboriginal races of our world are ethnically considered a more ancient people than those of the European continent. There are evidences that a great land bridge formerly joined Greenland with Labrador, making easy the passage for human beings from the one country to the other. In this way it is possible that there may have been at a very early period a community of inhabitants between the northern parts of Europe and the sub-polar regions of North America.

Meanwhile there can be little doubt that the Polynesians of Southeastern Asia began to make their way islandwise across the Pacific, and at length reached the western shores of South America. Again, we may trace with tolerable certainty the incoming of Asiatic Mongoloid tribes by way of Bering Strait into the northwesternmost parts of our continent. From these sources it is easy to conceive of an aboriginal distribution of peoples in the so-called New World at a period as early as those events which constitute the subject-matter of ancient history for Europe and Western Asia.

If we confine our attention to those westward movements of mankind by which our hemisphere became known to civilization we should fix our attention upon the Norse peoples of the tenth and eleventh centuries. Here we touch the remotest border of the epoch of discovery. It is not likely that any record made by man will ever be discovered in which the evidences of earlier visitation to our shores are recorded than in the Sagas of the Scandinavians. Nor are we at liberty to dismiss as mythical the now well-determined move-



NORSEMEN ON THE COAST OF AMERICA.

ments of the Norsemen by which the northeastern parts of the present United States were seen and visited and colonized as much as five hundred years before the epoch of Columbus. Since 1838, when through the efforts of Rafn and the Royal Society of Copenhagen the Scandinavian Sagas have been submitted to the critical judgment of Europe, all ground of doubt has been removed relative to the Norse discoveries in the west at the close of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh century.

It is now conceded that Labrador, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and the northeastern parts of the United States were visited and to a limited extent colonized before the Norman conquest of England. While old Sweyn was flaunting the Danish raven in the face of Ethelred the Unready ; while Robert I., son of Hugh Capet, was on the throne of France ; while the Saxon Otho III. swayed the destinies of Germany ; and while the Caliphate of Bagdad was still flourishing under the Abbassides, men of the Aryan race were establish-

ing a feeble communication between the New World and Iceland. It is appropriate, first of all, to give a brief account of the voyages and explorations made by the Norse adventurers along the coast of America.

THE NORSE DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA.

From the Sagas above referred to we learn that the Western continent was first reached by Europeans in the year A. D. 986. In that year a Norse sea-captain by the name of Herjulfson, sailing from Iceland to Greenland, was caught by a storm, turned somewhat from his course and carried to Labrador or Newfoundland. Several times the unknown



KILLING OF THORWALD.

shore was seen, but no landing was made or attempted. The coast was low and bleak. Tall forests abounded. The outline was so different from the well-known cliffs of Greenland as to make it certain that another shore hitherto unknown had been seen in the West.

On returning to Greenland, Herjulfson and his companions spread abroad the story of the new country which they had found, but whether it were continent or island none might know. Fourteen years later what may be called the actual discovery of America was made by Prince Leif, son of Eric the Red, usually called Leif Erickson. This noted Icelandic captain, resolving to know the truth about the country which Herjulfson had seen, sailed westward from Greenland, and in the spring of the year 1001 reached Labrador. Impelled

by a spirit of adventure, he went ashore with his companions and explored the coast for considerable distances. The country was found at that season to be milder and more attractive than Greenland, and Leif was in no haste to return. He coasted far southward, as far as Massachusetts, where his daring company remained for more than a year. Rhode Island was also visited, and it is alleged that the hardy adventurers found their way into New York harbor.

What has once been done, whether by accident or design, may easily be repeated. After the discovery of the new country it was a commonplace task for other navigators to follow the course taken by Herjulfson and Prince Leif. In the years that followed the discoveries of the latter several companies of Norsemen visited the shores of America. Thorwald, brother of Prince Leif, made a voyage to Maine and Massachusetts in the year 1002, and the captain is said to have been killed in a conflict with the natives at Fall River in the latter State. Then another brother, named Thorstein, came with his band in the year 1005, and two years afterwards Thorfinn Karlsefne, the most distinguished mariner of his day, arrived with a crew of a hundred and fifty men and made explorations along the coast of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and perhaps as far south as the capes of Virginia. Other companies of Icelanders and Norwegians visited the countries farther north and planted colonies in Newfoundland and Nova Scotia.

Little, however, was known or imagined by these rude adventurers of the character and extent of the country which they had discovered. They supposed, indeed, that it was only a portion of Western Greenland which bending to the north around an arm of the ocean had reappeared in the west. The Norse American settlements were feeble and soon broken up. Commerce was an impossibility in a country where there were only a few wretched savages with no disposition to buy and nothing at all to sell. The spirit of adventure soon appeased itself and the Norse sea rovers returned to their own country. To this undefined line of coast now vaguely known to them they gave the name of VINLAND; for the wild grape-bearing vine grew abundantly in many parts. The old Icelandic chroniclers insist that the country was pleasant and beautiful. As compared with their own mountainous and frozen island of the north the coasts of New England may well have seemed delightful.



A NORSE SEA KING.

RECKLESS CHARACTER OF THE NORSE SEA-ROVERS.

The men who thus first visited the northeastern parts of the United States were a race of hardy adventurers as lawless and restless as any that ever sailed the deep. Their mariners and captains penetrated every clime. Already before their discovery of America they had taken the better parts of France and England. All the monarchs of the latter country after William the Conqueror—himself the grandson of a sea-king—are descendants of the Norsemen. They were rovers of the sea; freebooters and pirates; warriors audacious and headstrong, wearing hoods surmounted with eagles' wings and walruses' tusks, mailed armor, and for robes the skins of polar bears. Woe to the people on whose defenceless coasts the

Vikings landed with sword and torch ! Their wayward life and ferocious disposition are well portrayed in one of their own old ballads :

He scorns to rest 'neath the smoky rafter,
He plows with his boat the roaring deep ;
The billows boil and the storm howls after—
But the tempest is only a thing of laughter—
The sea-king loves it better than sleep !

The Norse discoveries in America are clouded with uncertainties of time and circumstance. That settlements were made in Massachusetts and Rhode Island cannot be doubted. New bands of rovers came and others returned to Greenland and Iceland. For about three centuries voyages continued to be made by the Norsemen, and it is believed that as late as 1347 a Norwegian ship visited Labrador and the northeastern parts of the United States. The Norse remains which have been found at Newport, at Garnet Point, on Fall River and several other places seem to point clearly to some such events as are here described. The Icelandic poets and historians give a uniform and tolerably consistent account of the early exploits of their countrymen in Vinland. When the word America is mentioned in the hearing of the Icelandic schoolboys they will at once answer with enthusiasm, "Oh, yes ; Leif Erickson discovered that country in the year 1001."

These events, however, like all others, are to be weighed by their consequences. From the discovery of America by the Norsemen no historical results followed. Mankind were neither wiser nor better. The nature and significance of the discovery were in no wise understood by the men who made it. Among the Icelanders themselves the place and the very name of Vinland were forgotten. Europe never heard of such a country or such a discovery. Historians have until the last half century been incredulous on the subject and the fact is as though it had never been. The curtain which had been lifted for a moment was stretched again from sky to sea and the New World still lay hidden in the shadows.

OTHER TRADITIONS OF EARLY DISCOVERY.

Other traditions of discovery now come into view. It is said that before the final relinquishment of America by the Norse adventurers a sea-wanderer from rugged Wales had touched upon our eastern shores. The tradition runs that the Welsh prince Madoc was not less fortunate than Leif Erickson in finding the western shore of the Atlantic ; but the evidence of this exploit is far less satisfactory than that by which the Icelandic discoveries have been authenticated. According to the legend which the Cambrian chroniclers with patriotic pride have preserved and the poet Southey has transmitted, Madoc was the son of the Welsh king Owen Gwynedd, who flourished about the middle of the twelfth century. At this time a civil disturbance occurred in Wales and Prince Madoc was obliged to save himself by flight. With a small fleet he left the country in the year 1170 and after sailing westward for several weeks came to an unknown shore, beautiful and wild, inhabited by a strange race of men unlike the people of Europe.

For some time the Prince and his sailors tarried in the new land, delighted with its exuberance and with the salubrious climate. Then all but twenty of the daring company set sail and returned to Wales. It was the intention of Madoc to make preparations and return again. Ten ships were fitted out and the leader with his adventurous crew a second time set his prows to the west. The vessels dropped out of sight one by one and were never heard of more. The thing may have happened.

Meanwhile human intelligence and reason had had their growth. In the latter Middle Ages there were many symptoms of a revival, a resurrection from the intellectual death

which had so long prevailed in the world. Leading thinkers in many countries began to doubt the correctness of the accepted views respecting the character and figure of the earth. Intellectual curiosity was excited, as it must ever be in the presence of an unsolved problem. Was the world round or flat? Had the ocean another shore? What kind of a verge or precipice was drawn around the cloudy rim of nature? What vision of wonder and peril might arise upon the mariner's sight—

"Beyond the extreme sea-wall and between the remote sea gates?"

If a man go could he return again?

DIM CONCEPTIONS OF THE EARTH'S SPHERICITY.

As the shadows of the mediæval darkness began to roll away these queries were quick in the adventurous brain of New Europe. The vigorous sailors of the maritime republic of Italy and the daring travellers who had gone *up* (as they thought) to Jerusalem and thence *down* to India imagined that they could perceive the sphericity of the earth. They believed that the Holy City was set on the crest or ridge of the world! More particularly did those who journeyed northward and southward behold the stars rising overhead or sinking to the horizon in a way unaccountable except on the notion that the earth is round.

From the shores of Portugal and Spain, from Brest and Land's End, from the Skaggerack, the Orkneys and Iceland, the man of the fourteenth century looked wistfully, thoughtfully to the ocean of Atlas. He would fain try his power in that world of waters.

Rumor, tradition said that others had gone and come again in safety. The old knight of St. Albans, Sir John de Mandeville, coming from the far East in the year 1356 thus discourses on the problem which after a hundred and forty years was to receive a final solution at the hands of Columbus and Cabot:

"Wherefore men may easily perceive that the land and the sea are of round shape and figure, for that part of the firmament which is seen in one country is not seen in another. And men may prove both by experience and sound reasoning that if a man, having passage by ship, should go to search the world, he might with his vessel sail around the world both above and under it. This proposition I prove as follows: I have myself in Prussia seen the North Star by the astrolabe fifty-three degree above the horizon. Further on in Bohemia it rises to the height of fifty-eight degrees. And still further northward it is sixty-two degrees and some minutes high. I myself have so measured it. Now the South Pole Star is, as I have said, opposite the North Pole Star. And about these poles the whole celestial sphere revolves like a wheel about the axle; and the firmament is thus divided into two equal parts. From the north I have turned southward, passed the equator, and found that in Libya the Antarctic Star first appears above the horizon. Further on in those lands that star rises higher until in Southern Libya it reaches the height of eighteen degrees and



certain minutes, sixty minutes making a degree. After going by sea and by land towards that country [Australia, perhaps] of which I have spoken, I have found the Antarctic Star more than thirty-three degrees above the horizon. And if I had had company and shipping to go still further I know of a certainty that I should have seen the whole circumference of the heavens, . . . and I repeat that men may environ the whole world, as well under as above, and return to their own country if they had company and ships and conduct. And always, as well as in their own land, shall they find inhabited continents and islands. For know you well that they who dwell in the Southern Hemisphere are feet against feet of them who dwell in the Northern Hemisphere, just as we and they that dwell under us are feet to feet. For every part of the sea and the land hath its antipode. . . . Moreover, when men go on a journey toward India and the foreign islands, they do on the whole route circle the circumference of the earth even to those countries which are under us. And therefore hath that same thing which I heard recited when I was young happened many times. Howbeit, upon a time a worthy man departed from our country to explore the world. And so he passed India and the islands beyond India—more than five thousand in number—and so long he went by sea and land, environing the world for many seasons, that he found an island where he heard them speaking his own language, hallooing at the oxen in the plow with the identical words spoken to beasts in his own country. Forsooth he was astonished, for he knew not how the thing might happen. But I assure you that he had gone so far by land and sea that he had actually gone around the world and was come again through the long circuit to his own district. It only remained for him to go forth and find his particular neighborhood. Unfortunately he turned from the coast which he had reached and thereby lost all his painful labor, as he himself afterwards acknowledged when he returned home. For it happened by and by that he went into Norway, being driven thither by a storm, and there he recognized an island as being the same in which he had heard men calling the oxen in his own tongue; and that was a possible thing. And yet it seemeth to simple unlearned rustics that men may not go around the world, and if they did they would fall off! But that absurd thing never could happen unless we ourselves, from where we are, should fall toward heaven! For upon what part soever of the earth men dwell, whether above or under, it always seemeth to them that they walk more perpendicularly than other folks! And just as it seemeth to us that our antipodes are under us head downwards, just so it seemeth to them that we are under them head downwards. If a man might fall from the earth towards heaven, by much more reason the earth itself, being so heavy, should fall to heaven—an impossible thing."

TYRANNY OF CHURCH AND FEUDALISM.

Such were the reasonings of the old Knight of St. Albans at the middle of the fourteenth century. He was himself a traveller of great renown, and came home from the far east to record, in the thirteenth year of Edward III., the things which he had gathered by observation and tradition. To what extent such opinions were abroad among the best thinkers of the age we may never know. It must be remembered that the epoch was one of fear, superstition, dread—that it was an age in which the State taught men what things to do and the Church what things to believe. The correctness of the reasonings and deductions of Sir John Mandeville may well astonish us. It would be difficult to find in them any error except the mistaken reckoning of the length of a degree of longitude, and for that he was in no measure responsible. His suggestions and inferences, however, passed for little. They were regarded as the speculations of an imaginative mind, and the so-called

"practical men" of the fourteenth century made no effort to apply them to the circumnavigation of the globe.

Nearly a century and a half now elapsed before the problems of the sea were again taken up by navigators and adventurers. The sun of chivalry set and the expiring energies of feudalism ebbed away in Europe. The elder Capets gave place to the Houses of Valois and Orleans in France. The bloody wars of York and Lancaster made England desolate and barren; but the mystery of the Atlantic still lay unsolved under the shadows of the west. At last Louis XI. rose above the ruins of feudal France, and Henry VII. over the fragments of broken England. In Spain Ferdinand and Isabella, expelling both the Jew and the Mohammedan, consolidated their kingdoms, and prepared the way for the Spanish ascendancy in the times of their grandson. Destiny had decreed that this kingdom should become the patron and bear the honor of that great enterprise by which a New World was given first to Castile and Leon and afterwards to mankind. As to him who was destined to make the glorious discovery, his birth had been reserved for Italy.

The story of Christopher Columbus belongs in its completeness to another part of the present work. There the reader shall see displayed in full the sad disadvantages and endless disappointments to which the discoverer was doomed. For a moment the career of Columbus blazes out in meteoric splendor, shedding a lustre over half the world; then he falls into unmerited decline and ignominy and the tragedy ends with national ingratitude and injustice. There is in the drama every quality calculated to excite sympathy for the greatness of the man and applause for his immortal work.

For the present we pause only to note with keen regret the misadventures, ill luck and jealousy by which the name of Columbus was withheld from the islands and continents which he discovered. It is known to all the world how Amerigo Vespucci visiting the shores of South America in 1499, and returning to inform Europe that the new country was another continent and not a part of India, secured for himself the name of the New World. History at length, however, corrects the mistakes of men. There is a gradual elimination of contrivance and fraud from her immaculate pages. Though the name of America may never give place to Columbia the latter has fixed itself in the poetry and art of all lands as the true designation of our Western World.

CIVILIZATION OF THE PERUVIANS AND MEXICANS.

When Europeans first landed on the eastern shores of these continents the country was found inhabited by various races. In some parts, especially towards the north, there was savagery and barbarism. In other portions higher forms of civilization were discovered. In Central America and in the adjacent parts of the two greater continents evidences of the civilized life were found scarcely inferior to the existing conditions in the best parts of the world. In comparing the cities and peoples of Peru, Central America and Mexico with European communities of the same century, or with the civilized races of the ancient world, much allowance must be made for ethnic prejudice and for the fact that the materials of the inquiry have all been gathered by men of the conquering races.

The primitive civilized peoples of the three Americas have had no voice. Their poets and philosophers and advocates have not been heard in the great assizes where the relative merits of the peoples of the Old World and the New were to be decided. It is known, however, that nearly all the arts and sciences which were cultivated by the Arabians and Europeans in the later Middle Ages were known to the Central Americans, the Peruvians and the Mexicans. Pizarro, conqueror of Peru, was constrained in 1531 to acknowledge that the only superiority which the Spaniards whom he led could claim was in

military discipline and weaponry. In other respects the Peruvians were fully the equals of the invaders of their country. The physical evidences of civilization were on every hand. Post-roads, aqueducts and temples stood as the tangible evidence of what the Peruvian builders were able to accomplish. Mining and manufacturing flourished. Agriculture was carried to a high degree of perfection. The fine arts were patronized, and sculpture rose to a degree of excellence but little below that of Egypt and Greece.

A similar condition of affairs was found by Cortez in Mexico in 1519. The Mexicans also were adepts in the arts and sciences. The Spaniards chose to affect great horror at the religious rites which were practised by the Aztecs, and particularly at human sacrifice. But the world has failed to balance the account; for even in this particular the cruelties of the Mexican priests were not equal to those of the Spanish Inquisition. It is forgotten that



AZTEC'S SACRIFICING TO THE SUN.

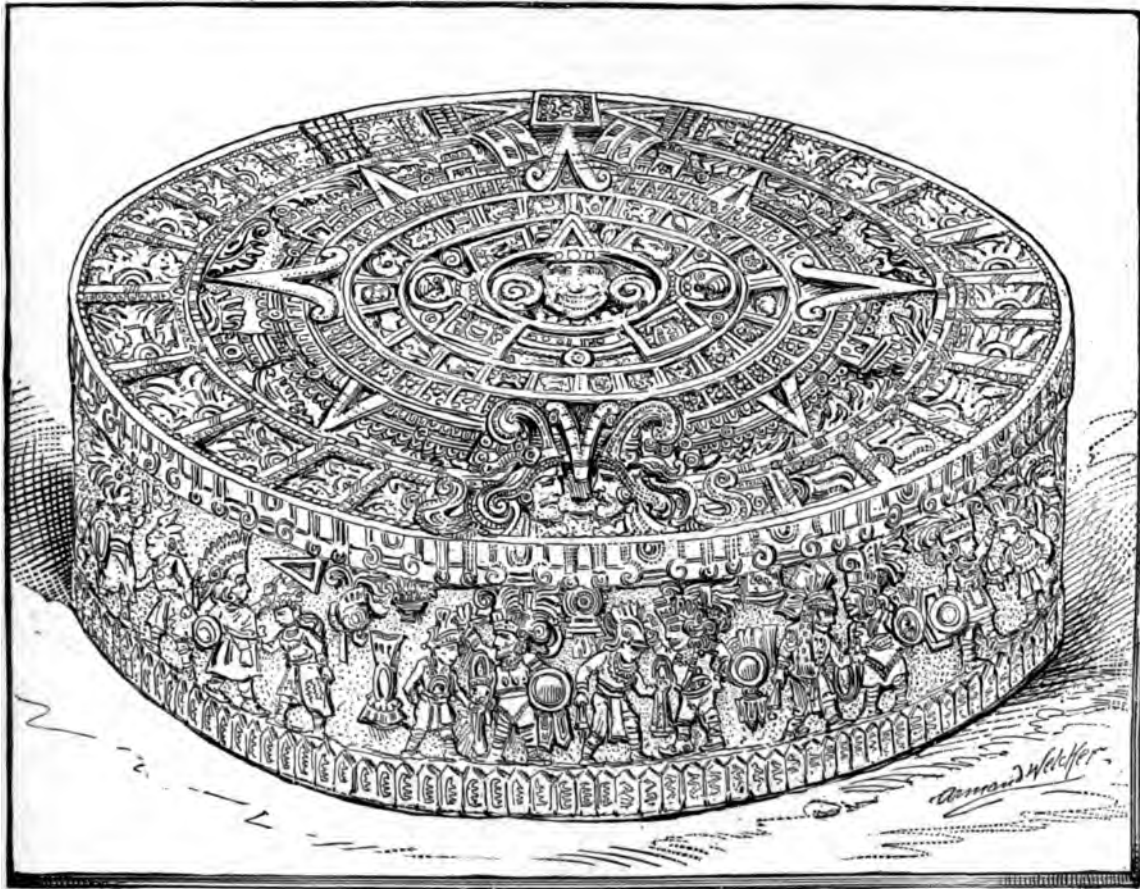
many races have thought it pleasing to the gods to offer human beings on sacrificial altars. Such practices were common in the Orient. At the time of the Carthaginian ascendancy the offering of human beings was a common circumstance of the national religion. While the Romans did not sacrifice men on altars they exposed them to wild beasts in the arena, or compelled them to meet their trained gladiators in the bloody circus.

It is now conceded that many of the most elevating discoveries of science were made by the Mexicans before they were made in Europe. The astronomy of the Aztecs was by no means despicable. They were familiar with the planets and stars and with the orderly processes of the heavens. They had perhaps the most complete calendar which men had invented prior to the establishment of the Gregorian system. The great calendar stone which has been preserved from the beginning of the sixteenth century shows conclusively

the advanced astronomical knowledge of the people who produced it. The Mexican architecture was of so high an order as to rival that of the Moors, and their wealth, according to the testimony of their conquerors, was quite incalculable.

WHENCE CAME THE FIRST SETTLERS OF AMERICA?

For four centuries speculation has been rife respecting the origin of the races of the New World. One hypothesis after another has been started and passed like a wave over the intelligence of the age, only to give place to the next. People without a knowledge of geography or the historical movements of mankind have attempted to show that the native races of America were the descendants of the Semitic peoples formerly living in the valley



AZTEC CALENDAR STONE.

of the Euphrates; but such a supposition is preposterous and need not occupy the attention of any rational being. Others again have believed that the races of the New World were indigenous, like the animals and plants, which differ much from those of Europe and Asia. Some have thought that aforetime—as we have said above—a great land bridge extended from Greenland to Labrador, thus furnishing a means of transit from the Eastern to the Western world. The easiness of passage across Bering's strait has furnished good ground for the supposition of ethnic kinship between a part of the American aborigines and the peoples of Northeastern Asia. Some of the ablest ethnologists have traced lines of progress from island to island across the Pacific from the Malay peninsula to the western coast of

South America. As for absolute knowledge of the origin of the American aborigines there is none. There are, however, good grounds for holding the belief in the common origin of all mankind, and it is easy to perceive several methods by which in the almost limitless ages of the past communication between the Eastern and the Western hemispheres might have been found and maintained until both were peopled. It is possible that the expressions Old World and New World have little foundation in fact. Indeed there are not wanting geological evidences that—as has already been said—the American continents emerged from the primæval waters at an earlier epoch than did Europe or Africa.

The difference in the physical, mental and moral states of the peoples of the East and West four centuries ago has been greatly exaggerated. Difference there certainly was in manners, customs and laws. Difference we may properly allow in the average grade of civilization. But the most striking particular in which the peoples east and west of the Atlantic differed the one from the other was as it respects aggressiveness, progress and ambition. These qualities belonged to the men of Europe. In the men of the New World they were largely wanting. The civilized communities of Central America, of Peru and Mexico, like some of the Oriental peoples of to-day, were contented with the stage of development which they had reached. They sought nothing beyond, either by discovery or conquest. The peculiar trait which caught the attention of the first Spanish and English marauders in the New World was the general content of the natives with their condition. Doubtless there was among the native communities an imperceptible growth by which the people were slowly carried forward into newer and improved conditions, but the movement was so slow as to escape attention in any given age and to produce results only after long lapses of time.

EFFECTS OF COMMERCE ON CIVILIZATION.

One of the concomitants—perhaps we might say one of the causes—of this condition was the absence of the commercial spirit and of maritime adventure. Commerce and sea-faring came from east to west. Neither spirit prevailed in any part of the New World. Commerce, even in the most civilized communities, hardly rose above the level of barter, and sea-going extended no further than the navigation of rivers and the safe waters along the shores of placid seas.

The Mediterranean countries, on the other hand, were specially favorable for the development of commerce and maritime adventure. Voyages from island to island and from coast to coast were easily undertaken, and the maritime spirit rose at a very early age. It became an enthusiasm, a passion. The Phœnicians and Carthaginians and Greeks were men of the sea. The same spirit at length prevailed in the westernmost parts of Europe. Navigation was improved and new means discovered for reaching distant regions of the globe. But in the New World none of these conditions and motives existed. The native peoples of America were land-peoples, and little ambitious of the sea. Content and possibly the spirit of ease prevailed with the Central American races, and commerce and navigation were therefore little cultivated.

It should not be understood, however, that aboriginal America such as it was four centuries ago was poor in those treasures which excite the ambitions and lusts of men. In many parts of these continents rich mines of gold and silver existed. Many of the gulf waters abounded in pearls. It were long to enumerate the native treasures which might be gathered by brave and adventurous marauders among the peaceable and well-contented peoples who inhabited the central parts of our hemisphere at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

We should remember, however, that the actual treasures of the New World were not comparable with the fabulous. Story and imagination wrought astonishing fictions of the gorgeous wealth which abounded in the new lands. Every adventurer carried the torch of fancy; and though each nightfall found him unrewarded he slept and dreamed of the riches that should come with the morrow.

From this distance we are easily able to summarize the motives which carried the European adventurers to our shores. The men who crossed the Atlantic at the close of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century were inflamed, first of all, with the passion of gold-hunting. A second motive was the acquisition of territory, and the third



A PHOENICIAN SHIP.

—though less sincere—was the purpose of bringing new races of men to the Christian religion as taught and formulated by the Church of Rome. On the whole it was a matter of gain and conquest. Men, for many generations given over to the struggles of war, of barbarism, of wild adventure in eastern lands, found at length to the west of the Atlantic vast new regions in which their energies and passions might have free play and reach satiety.

We are here to take up and consider in their order the various movements by which the new continents were made known to the peoples of Europe. The exploits of Columbus, however—first and greatest of them all—are omitted in this connection, as they constitute on a larger scale the subject-matter of another part of the present volume. It is sufficient to note in this connection that the man of Genoa, though the first of Europeans to reach the West Indian islands and the mainland of South America, was not the first to touch the shores of the North American continent. That great adventure and discovery were reserved for another man of Italian birth, but sailing under the flag of England. It is to him and the exploits of his son and successors that we are now to give attention.



CHAPTER II.

THE CABOTS AND THEIR FOLLOWERS.



ANY writers have dwelt upon the state of enthusiasm and fervor which prevailed at the European courts when the news was borne abroad that Columbus had returned from the western shores of the Atlantic. True, there was great confusion in the reports. The navigator himself supposed that he had found the Indies—the land of Cathay which Marco Polo and other story-telling travellers had described as lying on the easternmost parts of Asia. One thing was certain; he had found land. Many islands had been circumnavigated. Others were so extensive as to seem to be continents. Clearly it was but the beginning of discovery. All imaginations were inflamed with the intelligence. Incredulity was brushed aside, and a vast trans-Atlantic world rose upon the imagination like a mirage beyond the desert.

All the maritime nations immediately prepared to discover and to occupy the new lands in the West. The seafaring communities were quickest in sending forth their captains on the lines of discovery and adventure. England held—as she has ever done—a peculiarly favorable situation for the work of navigation and conquest over sea. Her mariners were bold and skilful. They had in them the courage of the Vikings, the hardihood of the Saxons and the imaginations of the Normans. When the news of Columbus' discoveries were spread abroad in the harbors of Merry England her captains, not a few, were ready to take up the work and go forth in search of the New World.

Among the many who were excited to ambition and activity by the great event of 1492 was Giovanni Gabotto or Kaboto, or as his name appears in English John Cabot. His birthplace was probably Venice, but his home was in Bristol, in West England. He was a seaman from his childhood. His voyages had reached to the easternmost parts of the Mediterranean. While in that far realm he had visited Mecca and had seen the incoming caravans from India laden with spices and gems. He believed as Columbus did that the far East might be reached by sailing to the westward, and this notion he succeeded in impressing upon three English merchants of Bristol who agreed to bear the expense of an expedition to be commanded by Cabot.

The consent of the Crown, however, was necessary. Henry VII., first king of the House of Tudor, recently victorious over his enemies at the battle of Bosworth Field, cold and calculating, hesitated long before assenting to the request of Cabot. The latter hovered about the court for many weeks; but at length the envy of the King, jealous of the great things which had been accomplished under the banners of Castile and Leon, prevailed over his narrow and parsimonious spirit; and on the 5th of May, 1496, he issued a

charter to John Cabot "mariner, of Venice," granting him privilege and authority to make discoveries and explorations in the Atlantic and Indian oceans, to carry the English flag and to take possession of all islands and continents which he might discover. The expenses of the expedition were to be borne by the three merchants of Bristol; but one-fifth of all the profits gained by the expedition should be given to the Crown.

DISCOVERY OF NORTH AMERICA BY CABOT.

The months of the following autumn and winter were spent in preparations for the voyage. A fleet of five vessels was prepared and provisioned; but only one ship, a small caravel called the *Matthew*, carrying a crew of eighteen men under the immediate command of Cabot sailed on the expedition. Among the crew were John Cabot's three sons, Lewis, Sebastian and Santius. The *Matthew* left Bristol in the latter part of April and after a tempestuous voyage reached the coast of Labrador in the latitude of 56 degrees north, on St. John's Day, the 24th of June, 1497. *This was the real discovery of North America.* Indeed, it was the true discovery of the American continents, for nearly fourteen months elapsed before Columbus himself touched the mainland on the Gulf of Paria. More than two years passed before Ojeda and Vespucci traced the shore of South America.

Although it was the season of midsummer, Cabot found the country which he had discovered to be ice-bound and wrapped in the solitude of an apparently perpetual winter. The coast was forbidding. A few wretched natives ran down to see the ship which appeared to them a prodigy of the sea. The



JOHN CABOT LANDING ON THE SHORES OF LABRADOR.

commander attempted to open communications with the natives, but it is believed that no landing was made. The shore line was explored, however, for several hundred miles. Cabot supposed that he had found the kingdom of the Grand Khan of Tartary; but neither the character of the country nor the appearance of the natives warranted the conclusion.

Before setting sail for England the navigator went on shore, and according to the terms of his commission planted the flag of England and took possession in the name of the English King. The tradition runs that by the side of the flag of his adopted country, Cabot also set up the banner of his native land, the Republic of Venice; nor will fancy fail to discover in the event the auspicious omen of a far-off day of greatness when the flag of another and greater Republic should wave from sea to sea.

The good ship *Matthew* returned to Bristol on the 6th of August, 1497. From the dates we may easily discover the brevity of the voyage. Twice on the right hand the coast of Newfoundland was seen. After a little more than three months of absence the captain and his crew came safely to shore. Bristol had her holiday. The Admiral Cabot was received with rejoicing. An entry in the private accounts of Henry VII. for the 10th of August, 1497, is as follows: "For him that found the new isle, ten pounds." But the reports of

the event are meagre, and we are left to conjecture with respect to much that followed. At the present time an ancient manuscript is preserved in a book shop in Bristol in which a brief announcement is made of the safe return of the *Matthew* and of the discovery by Cabot of a new country beyond the Atlantic.

The cautious King at length issued a new commission more liberal than the first and the same was signed in February of 1498. New ships were fitted and new crews enlisted for a second voyage. Strange as it may seem, after the date of this second patent the very name of John Cabot disappears from the annals of the times. Where the remainder of his life was passed and the circumstances of his death are involved in complete mystery.

DISCOVERIES OF SEBASTIAN CABOT.

But Sebastian Cabot, second of his father's sons, had inherited not only the plans and reputation of the latter, but also his genius. Indeed the younger Cabot appears through the shadows of four centuries as a man of greater capacity and enterprise than his father. As we have said the younger Cabots accompanied the elder on his famous first voyage. Sebastian now took up the cause with all the fervor of youth. It is probable that the same fleet, the equipment of which had been begun for the father, was intrusted to the son. However this may be, Sebastian in the spring of 1498 found himself in command of a squadron of well-manned vessels and on his way to the new continent. But the new continent was still supposed to be that India which had been the dream of navigators and cosmographers for many generations. The particular object of Sebastian was the common folly of the times, namely, the discovery of a northwest passage across the Atlantic to the Indies.

At the close of the fifteenth century nothing was known about the general character of the great ocean currents which so largely modify the temperature of the seas and lands. Navigators had no notion of the great difference in climate of the parts of Europe and America situated on the same parallels of latitude. The humidity and comparative warmth of Great Britain were naturally supposed to exist in the new lands at a corresponding distance from the equator. It remained for the Cabots to discover the much greater rigor of the climate on the western shores of the north Atlantic. The voyage of Sebastian proceeded prosperously until he reached the seas west of Greenland. Here he was obliged by the icebergs to change his course.

It was now July and the sun scarcely set at midnight. Seals were seen in abundance and the ships ploughed through such shoals of codfish as had never before been heard of. The shore of Labrador was reached not far from the scene of the elder Cabot's discoveries. Then the fleet turned southward, but whether across the Gulf of St. Lawrence or to the east of Newfoundland is uncertain. New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and the coast of Maine were successively explored. The whole shore line of New England and of the Middle States was now for the first time since the days of the Norsemen seen and traced by Europeans. Nor did Cabot desist from this work which was bestowing the title of discovery on the Crown of England until he had passed beyond the Chesapeake. After all the disputes about the matter it is most probable that Cape Hatteras is the point from which Sebastian began his homeward voyage.

It was in this manner that the right of England to the better parts of North America was first declared. The "right" in question may be strongly criticised by posterity, as it rested wholly upon the fact of *first view* by a company of English sailors looking shoreward from their vessels in the summer of 1498. But this first view was called discovery, and the

Christian kings of Europe had agreed among themselves that discovery should hold—that it should constitute a right which they would mutually respect and defend. In this compact not the slightest attention was paid to the rights of possession and occupancy enjoyed for unknown generations by the native peoples of the new lands. All the claims of the aboriginal races were brushed aside as not of the slightest consequence or validity. The flag of Tudor had been carried in a ship along the coast from Labrador to Cape Hatteras, and English sailors had *seen* the New World before any of their European rivals; therefore England had a right to the possession of the continent thus “discovered!”

As for Sebastian Cabot himself, his future career was as strange as the voyages of his boyhood had been wonderful. The dark-minded, illiberal Henry VII., although quick to appreciate the value of Cabot's discoveries, was slow to reward the discoverer. He, as well as all the Tudor kings who succeeded him, was a scheming and selfish prince. When Henry VIII. died, Ferdinand the Catholic enticed Sebastian Cabot away from England and made him Pilot-major of Spain. While holding this high office he had for a season almost supreme control of the maritime affairs of the kingdom and sent out many successful voyages. He lived to be very old, but the circumstances of his death have not been ascertained, and the place of his burial is unknown to this day.

DA GAMA DISCOVERS A ROUTE TO INDIA.

We may here pause to note the rapid unfoldings of discovery in the last years of the fifteenth century. The true concept of the world came with 1498. That year may be fixed upon as the most marked in the history of modern times. In the month of May, Vasco da Gama, of Portugal, succeeded in doubling the Cape of Storms, afterwards known as the Cape of Good Hope, and after a long and successful voyage reached Hindustan. We have just seen how in the same summer Sebastian Cabot traced the eastern coast of North America through more than twenty degrees of latitude, thus establishing for all future time the claims of England to what proved to be the better parts of the new continent. In August of the same year Columbus himself, now sailing on his third voyage, reached the mainland of South America not far from the mouth of the Orinoco. Destiny had decreed that of these three great discoveries that of Cabot should prove to be most important in practical results.

A strange obstacle, however, interposed itself for a while in the way of English discovery. In the first place it may be doubted whether the Tudor kings, from Henry VII. to Elizabeth, were much concerned about the character and possibilities of the New World. Henry VIII. during his reign of nearly forty years was occupied with the domestic affairs of his kingdom and with those threatening foreign intrigues which resisted, as their ulterior object, the growth and greatness of England. Meanwhile, as soon as America was discovered the kings of Spain and Portugal began to contend for what the first had found and the second had neglected to find. Pope Alexander VI. was called in to settle the dispute, and in 1493 did so by issuing the famous bull whereby an imaginary line was drawn north and south in the Atlantic three hundred miles west of the Azores, and all the islands and countries west of that meridian given to Spain. Thus by a stroke of the pen about three-fourths of the human race, including their countries and cities, were handed over to Ferdinand the Catholic as if they had been a basket of figs presented to a friend!

The Pope, taking advantage of the turmoils, wars and cross-purposes of Europe, had risen to such power that crowned heads bowed before him. Henry VIII., always contending that he himself was the truest of Catholics, was little disposed to dispute the decision which the Pope had rendered during the reign of his father. For the time it appeared that Spain

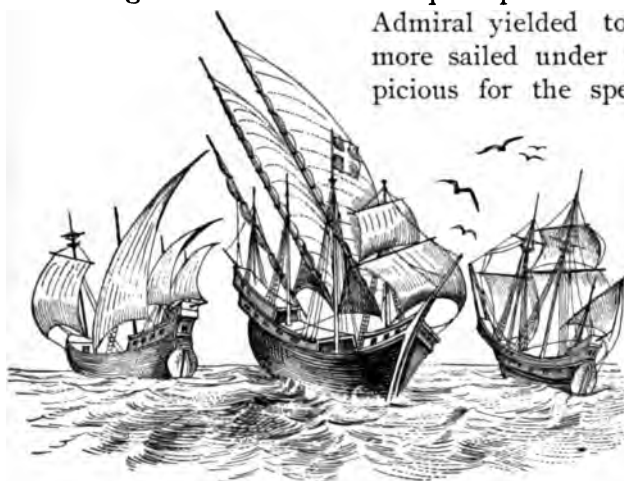
and Portugal had succeeded, under the Papal sanction, in dividing the new islands and continents between them. For this reason the claims which had originated with the discoveries of the Cabots were allowed to lie dormant. The right of the English king to hold and possess the long continental line between Newfoundland and Carolina was not pressed by the first Tudor kings lest they should quarrel with the Pope. It was not until after the Reformation had been accomplished in England that the Papal decision came to be disregarded and finally despised and laughed at.

With the event of the Reformation, which may be dated in the reign of Edward VI., came a revival of English maritime adventure. When the break with Rome was once final, or seemed to be final, the decisions of the Pope relative to the rights of the various European crowns were not likely to be much regarded by the ministers and advisers of young Edward. In the year 1548 that King's council voted a hundred pounds sterling to induce the now aged Sebastian Cabot to quit Spain and become Grand Pilot of England. The old

Admiral yielded to the temptation, left Seville, and once more sailed under the English flag. The omens were auspicious for the speedy recovery of whatever England had lost to her rival by the apathy and indecision of half a century.

ENGLAND'S DIVORCE FROM ROME.

But the reign of Edward VI. came suddenly to an end. To him succeeded his half-sister Mary, to whom history has given the unpleasing name of the Bloody Mary. The Catholic reaction set in with full force. England was bound to Spain as if she were an appanage by the marriage of her Queen to Philip II. Under such conditions it was out of the question that the power of



THE FLEET OF FROBISHER.

England on the sea should be materially extended. With the accession of the princess Elizabeth, however, in the year 1558, a wonderful impulse was given to all enterprises which promised the aggrandizement of her kingdom.

Elizabeth Tudor was a Protestant by necessity. Destiny had contrived it so before her birth. She had in her the nature and dispositions of a Catholic Princess; but she had also the accumulated ambitions of the House of Tudor. The alternative was sharp before her. She must choose the one thing and reject the other. She must plant herself like adamant forever against Rome and become the impersonation of English Protestantism. For her to be a Catholic was not only to admit the invalidity of her mother's marriage to her father, the illegitimacy of her own birth, but also to cast to the winds all legal and rightful claims to the English Crown. By being a Protestant she could maintain the rightfulness of her father's first divorce, the lawfulness of her mother's marriage, and her own consequent claims to be a legitimate Princess of the line established by her grandfather. Thus by the contrivance of history England was broken away from the continental system, including allegiance to Rome, and was thus freed to pursue her course of insular consolidation and her career of foreign adventure.

No sooner had the affairs of the kingdom been well established after the accession of Elizabeth than maritime enterprises began again to be prompted. The spirit of discovery

found impersonation in that bold and skilful sailor, Martin Frobisher, of Doncaster. Without means himself to undertake an expedition into foreign seas, he received aid from Dudley, Earl of Warwick, who fitted out three small vessels and placed them under Frobisher's command, to go in search of the mythical northwest passage to India. Three-quarters of a century had not sufficed to destroy the fanatical notion of reaching the rich countries of the East by sailing around America to the north.

Frobisher departed from Deptford on the 8th of June, 1576. One of his ships was lost on the voyage. Another was terrified at the prospect and returned to England; but the dauntless captain proceeded in the third far to the north and west, attaining a higher latitude than had ever before been reached by Europeans on the western shore of the Atlantic. About the sixtieth parallel he discovered the group of islands which lie in the mouth of Hudson's Strait. Still farther to the north he came to a large island which he—under the common delusion of the age—supposed to be the mainland of Asia. To this he gave the name of *Meta Incognita*. North of this island, in latitude sixty-three degrees and eight minutes, he entered the strait which has ever since borne his name, and then believing that he had found the open way to Asia, set sail for England. He carried home with him one of the natives called Esquimaux and a stone which was thought by the English refiners to contain particles of gold.

ADVENTURES OF THE ENGLISH GOLD-HUNTERS.

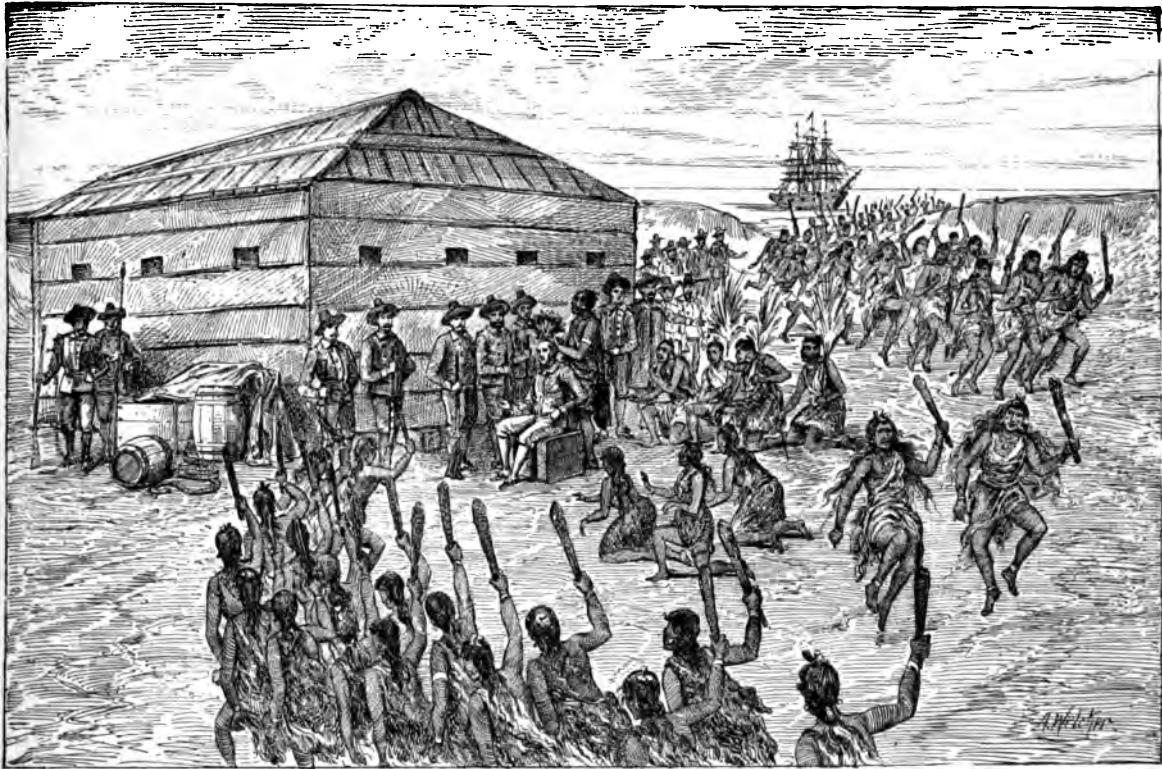
Great was the excitement in England. London was stirred to action. Queen Elizabeth herself contributed one ship to the new fleet which in the month of May, 1577, departed for *Meta Incognita*. All these vessels were to come home laden with gold! Strange and vicious delusion which for thousands of years has held dominion over the imaginations of men! Frobisher's ships soon came among the icebergs of the far North, and there for weeks together they were in imminent danger of being crushed between the floating mountains. The summer was cold and unfavorable for discovery. The fleet did not succeed in reaching the same high point which Frobisher had gained in his single vessel in the previous summer. The sailors were alarmed at the gloomy perils of sea and shore and availed themselves of the first opportunity to escape from these dangerous waters and return to England.

But this unfruitful experience did not suffice. The English gold-hunters were by no means satisfied. They regarded the return of the expedition as a cowardly failure to accomplish an enterprise which was already in sight. A third fleet of fifteen vessels strong and new was fitted out and Queen Elizabeth again contributed personally to the expense of the voyage. In the early spring of 1578 the squadron departed for the land of gold. It was the intention to plant there a colony of diggers. Some were to remain, others to return with the fleet. Twelve ships were expected to come back freighted with gold-ore to London.

But the third summer was as severe as the others. At the entrance to Hudson Strait the floating icebergs were so thick that the ships could not be steered among them. For a long time the vessels were buffeted about in constant peril of destruction. At last they succeeded in reaching *Meta Incognita* and soon gathered their cargoes of — dirt! The provision ship slipped away from the fleet and returned to England. The affairs of the expedition grew desperate. The northwest passage was forgotten. The colony which was to be planted was no longer thought of. Faith in the shiploads of mica and dirt which they had gathered in the holds gave away; and so with disappointed crews and several tons of the spurious ore under the hatches the ships set sail for home. The Eldorado of the Esquimaux had proved to be an utter delusion.

THE PIRACIES OF DRAKE.

After the death of Queen Mary the break between England and Spain became ever more ominous. The hostility between the two powers amounted almost to constant war. Even when the Spanish and English crowns were nominally at peace and when Philip and Elizabeth were exchanging the hypocritical compliments of princes a state of secret enmity existed, which on the sea at least showed itself in many acts of violence and robbery. It was at this time that the great English Admiral, Sir Francis Drake, sought fortune by privateering. Without much regard for the law of nations he began, about 1572, to prey upon the merchant ships of Spain and gained thereby enormous wealth. Five years later, following the route of Magellan, he sailed around to the Pacific coast and became a terror to the Spanish vessels in those waters. He greatly enriched himself and



CROWNING OF DRAKE AS THE KING OF CALIFORNIA.

his crews by a process not very different from piracy. But satisfied at length with this form of marauding, he formed the project of tracing up the western coast of North America until he should find perchance the northwest passage at its Pacific mouth, hoping to sail thence eastward around our continent.

With this object in view, Drake followed the Pacific coast as far north as Oregon, discovering San Francisco harbor on the way, where he built a fort, spent the winter and was crowned King by native Indians. But his sailors who had now been for several years within the tropics began to shiver with the cold, and the enterprise which in any event must have ended in failure was given up. Sailing southward the navigator passed the winter of 1579-80 in a harbor on the coast of Mexico. To all that portion of the western shores of America which he had thus explored he gave the name of New Albion; but the earlier

discovery of the same coast by the Spaniards had rendered the English claim of but little value. Thus far no permanent colony of Englishmen had been established in the New World.

Among the first to conceive a rational plan of colonizing America was Sir Humphrey Gilbert. This remarkable personage had already produced a treatise on the possibility of finding a northwest passage to India, which work is said to have been the inspiring cause of the voyages of Frobisher. The results had not equalled expectation, and Gilbert began to brood over the notion of establishing somewhere on the shores of the new continent an agricultural and commercial State. If the hopes of finding gold had been thus far delusive, certainly the hope of agriculture and commerce would not so prove. Sir Humphrey brought his views to the attention of the Queen and sought her aid. Elizabeth received his propositions favorably and issued to him a liberal patent authorizing him to take possession of any six hundred square miles of unoccupied territory in America, and to plant thereon a colony of which he himself should be proprietor and governor.

With this commission Sir Humphrey Gilbert, assisted by his illustrious step-brother, Walter Raleigh, prepared a fleet of five vessels and in June of 1583 sailed for the west. Only two days after their departure the best vessel in the fleet treacherously abandoned the rest and returned to Plymouth. Gilbert, however, continued his voyage and early in August reached Newfoundland. There he went on shore and took formal possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. Unfortunately some of the sailors discovered in the side of the hill scales of mica and the judge of metals whom Gilbert had been unwise enough to bring with him declared that the glittering mineral was silver ore. The crews became at once insubordinate. Some went to digging the supposed silver and carrying it on board the vessels while others gratified their piratical propensities by attacking the Spanish and Portuguese ships that were engaged in codfishing in the neighboring waters.



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

DEATH OF SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

In a short time it was found that one of Gilbert's vessels was unfit for sea. This ship was abandoned, but with the other three Sir Humphrey left Newfoundland and steered for the south. Off the coast of Massachusetts the largest of the remaining ships was wrecked and the whole crew and cargo, consisting of a hundred men and a great amount of spurious silver ore, went to the bottom. The disaster was so great that Gilbert gave up the expedition and set sail for England.

The weather had now become stormy and the two ships that remained were unfit for navigation in such rough waters. Sir Humphrey's ship, which was the weaker of the two, was a little frigate called the *Squirrel*. This he had chosen in order that the other crew might have the advantage in the attempt to return to England. Both vessels were shattered and leaking. The storm howled around them. At midnight when the ships were within hailing distance of each other, but out of sight, the raging sea rose between them and the *Squirrel* was suddenly engulfed. Not a man of the courageous crew was saved.* The other ship finally reached Falmouth in safety.

It would appear that these reverses and disasters rather quickened the ambitions than aroused the fears of Sir Walter Raleigh. In the following spring that remarkable man obtained from the Queen a new patent fully as liberal as the one granted to Gilbert. The scheme now embraced a form of government for an American colony. Sir Walter was to be the Lord Proprietary of an extensive tract of country extending from the thirty-third to the fortieth parallel of north latitude. The territory was to be held in the name of the Queen. A State was to be organized and peopled by emigrants from England.

The character of the northern seas and coasts had now been sufficiently revealed to turn the attention of explorers to a more hospitable region. The frozen North was henceforth avoided. The sunny country extending from Cape Fear to the Delaware was to be chosen as the seat of the rising empire. A squadron of two ships was fitted out to forerun the enterprise, the command being given to Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow. The first of these was a sea captain from Hull and the second of unknown origin, but distinguished as a navigator.

The expedition left England on the 27th of April, 1784. The ships touched first at the Canaries and then the West Indies, from which point they made the coast of Carolina. It was on the 13th of July that they entered Ocracoke inlet. The coast was found to be long and low, the sea smooth and glassy. The woods were full of beauty and song. The journal of Barlow is filled with exclamations of delight. The sailors seemed "as if they had been in the midst of some delicate garden." The natives were found to be generous

* The fate of Sir Humphrey Gilbert has been embalmed in song by Longfellow:

"In the first watch of the night
Without a signal's sound,
Out of the sea mysteriously
The fleet of Death rose all around.

* * * * *

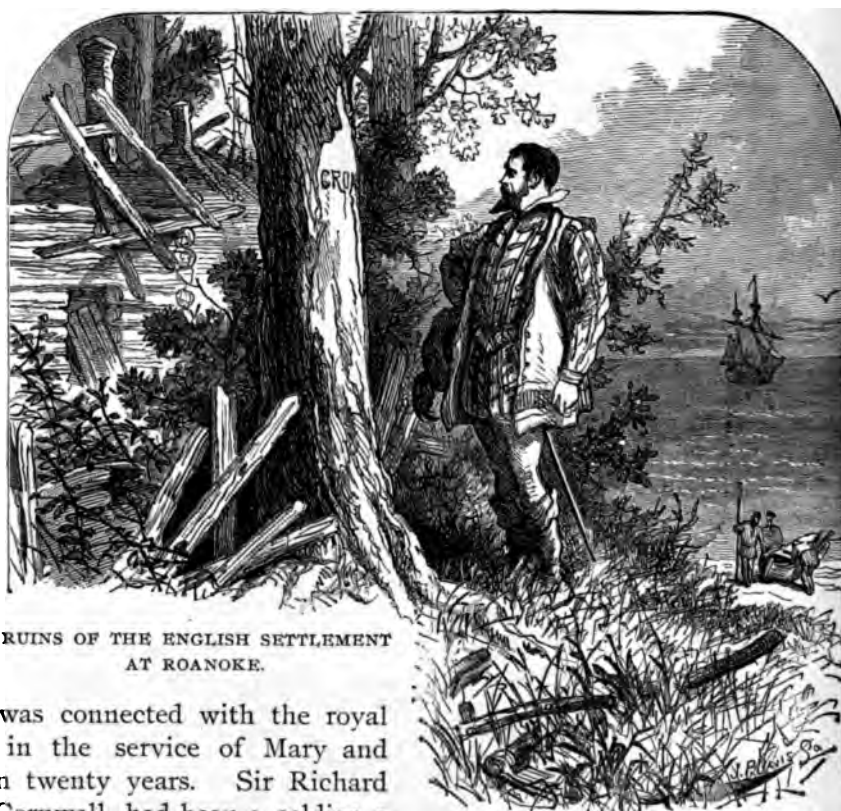
"Southward through day and dark
They drift in close embrace,
With mist and rain o'er the open main;
Yet there seems no change of place.

"Southward, forever southward
They drift through dark and day;
And like a dream in the Gulf-stream
Sinking, vanish all away."

and hospitable. Explorations were made along the shores of Albemarle and Pamlico sounds and a landing finally effected on Roanoke Island, where the English were entertained by the Indian queen. Neither Amidas nor Barlow, however, had the genius necessary for the prosecution of so great an enterprise. After a stay of less than two months they returned to England to exhaust the rhetoric of description in praising the beauties of the new land. In allusion to her own life and reign Elizabeth gave to her delightful country in the New World the name of VIRGINIA.

Sir Walter Raleigh now carried his enterprise to Parliament. In December of 1584 he secured the passage of a bill by which his former patent was confirmed and enlarged. By this means he secured public attention. The mind of the people was turned more than hitherto to the project

of emigration. It was perceived by many that Sir Walter's proposed province in the New World offered the greatest inducements to emigrants and adventurers. The plan of colonization was accordingly taken up anew with zeal and earnestness. The Lord Proprietary soon fitted out a second expedition. He appointed the soldierly Sir Ralph Lane to be governor of the colony and gave the command of his fleet to Sir Richard



RUINS OF THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENT
AT ROANOKE.

Grenville. Sir Ralph was connected with the royal family and had been in the service of Mary and Elizabeth for more than twenty years. Sir Richard was a navigator from Cornwall, had been a soldier, a civil officer, a member of Parliament and finally a knight under patent from Queen Elizabeth. He was a cousin to Raleigh, and embarked eagerly in the project of colonization.

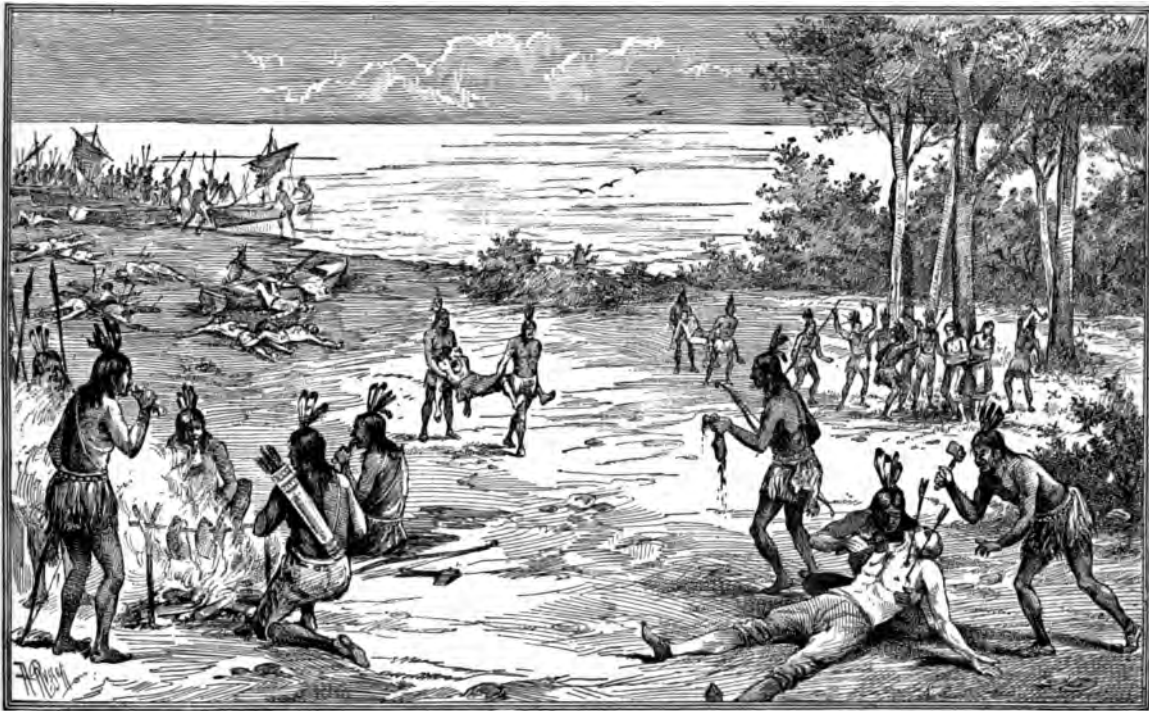
FOUNDING OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENT IN AMERICA.

As for emigrants, they were made up to a considerable extent of the adventurous and gallant young nobility of the kingdom. The fleet consisted of seven vessels. The voyage extended from the 9th of April to the 20th of June, when the shore of Carolina was reached in safety. Soon afterwards a storm arose and the whole squadron was in imminent danger of destruction—a peril which suggested to Grenville the naming of *Cape Fear*, which the outjutting coast has borne to the present day.

Escaping from the storm, the vessels six days afterwards came to Roanoke. Here it was determined to plant the colony. A hundred and eight men were landed and organized

under Governor Lane. For several days explorations were made in the neighborhood. One of the Indians ignorantly took away a silver cup, whereupon Sir Richard laid waste the fields of maize and burned an Indian town. He then set sail for England, taking with him a Spanish treasure-ship which he had captured in the West Indies. Privateering and colonization went hand in hand.

The Indians were enraged at the cruelties of the white men. The spirit of gentleness which they had hitherto displayed towards the Europeans gave place to jealousy, suspicion and hatred. Lane and some of his companions were enticed with false stories to go on a gold-hunting expedition into the interior. Their destruction was planned, and only avoided by a hasty retreat to Roanoke, Virginia. The Indian King and several of his chiefs were now in turn allured into the power of the English and inhumanly murdered. Ferocity and gloom followed this crime ; then despondency and a sense of danger, until the discouragement



MASSACRE OF SETTLERS AT ROANOKE.

ment became so great that when Sir Francis Drake, returning with a fleet from his exploits on the Pacific coast, came in sight the colonists prevailed on him to carry them back to England.

It was thus by the cupidity, injustice and crime of the Whites done on the unoffending natives that the chasm of hostility was opened between the English-speaking race and the aborigines of North America. Nor have three hundred years sufficed to bridge over the abyss ! The event soon showed that the abandonment of the colony had been needless and hasty. Within a few days a shipload of stores arrived from the prudent Raleigh, but the captain found no colony. The vessel, therefore, could do nothing but return. Two weeks later Sir Richard Grenville came in person to Roanoke with three well laden ships and made a fruitless search for his colonists. All were gone. Not to lose possession of the country altogether, the governor left fifteen men on the island and set sail for home.

MASSACRE OF THE ENGLISH AT ROANOKE.

The general result in England was discouraging. The ardor of the people cooled when it was known that the enterprise had ended in failure. Nevertheless truthful descriptions of the magnificent coast of Virginia and Carolina had now been published and it was only a question of time when the spirit of enterprise and adventure would revive. Sir Walter himself did much to promote and encourage emigration. A new company of colonists consisting largely of families was made up, and a new charter of municipal government was granted by the Proprietary. John White was chosen governor, and every precaution was taken to secure the success of the City of Raleigh soon to be founded in the West.

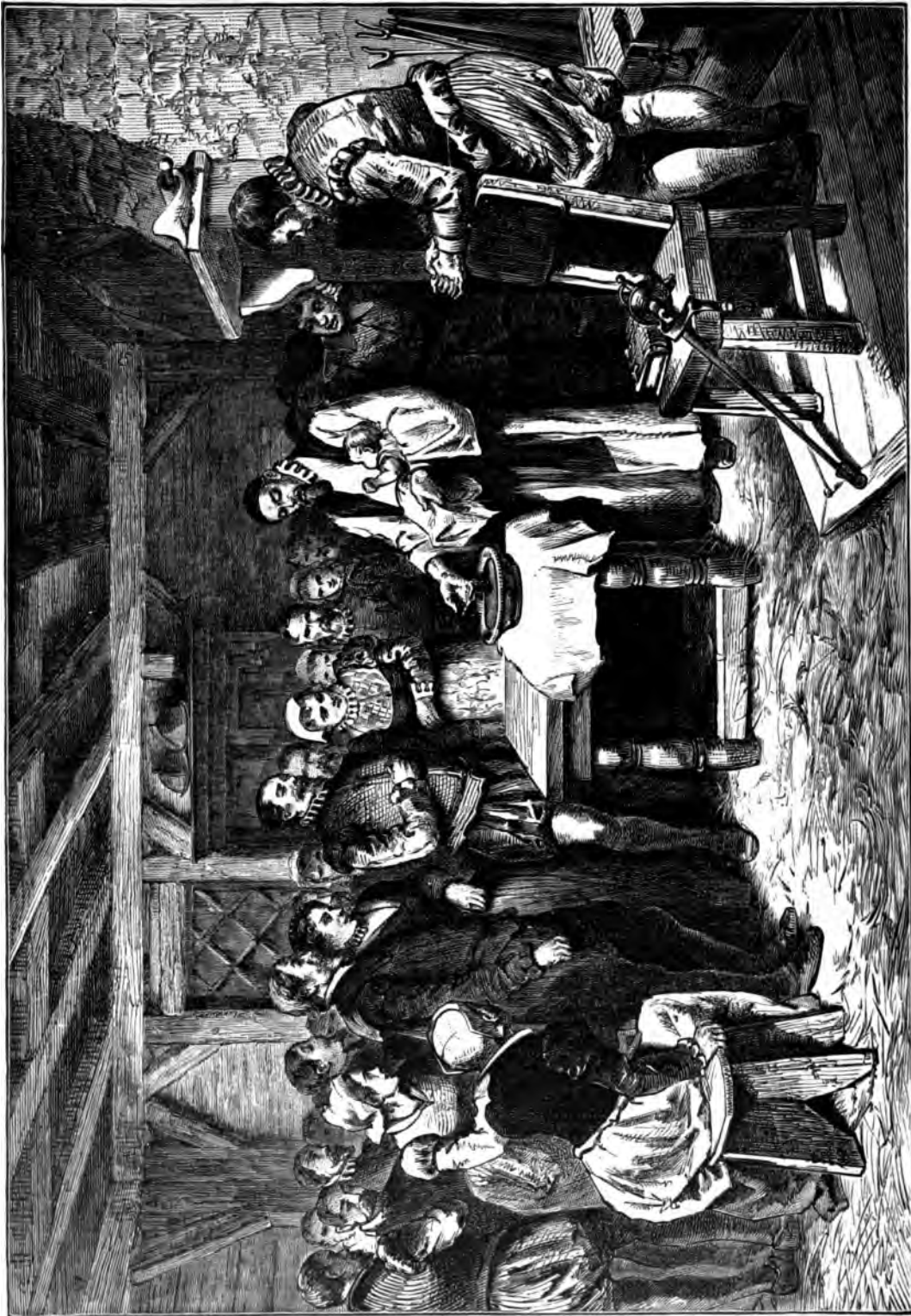
In April of 1587 the new fleet departed from England and in the following July arrived in Carolina. The dangerous Capes of Hatteras and Fear were avoided and the ships came safely to Roanoke. A search was made for the fifteen men who had been left there the year before ; but the sequel showed that they had been murdered by the now hostile Indians. Nevertheless Captain White selected the northern extremity of the ill-omened island as the site for his "city" and on the 23d of July the foundations were laid.

But fortune was still adverse to the enterprise. The new settlers and the Indians renewed their hostilities and went to war. After some destruction of life peace was concluded, and Sir Walter conceived the plan of uniting the fortunes of the two races by a common interest. He accordingly gave his sanction to a project which, as the events showed, was sufficiently absurd. The Indian king of Roanoke was Manteo. Him Sir Walter selected as the link of union between the English and the natives. Manteo was recognized as one of the rulers of the land, and was made a peer of England with the title of Lord of Roanoke ! Of course no salutary results could follow such a piece of silliness and misapprehension.

Notwithstanding the presence of their copper-colored nobleman, the colonists continued to be gloomy and apprehensive. They pretended to fear starvation. In the latter part of August they became half-mutinous and almost compelled the governor to return to England for additional supplies and new immigrants. The governor, in a mistaken spirit, yielded to the pressure and sailed away. Had the colonists been content to employ the summer in useful labor—in planting and gathering and preparation—they might have easily provided themselves against the exigency of winter. But they imagined that their stores must be constantly replenished from abroad, and the spirit of independence was thus destroyed.

An incident of these days was the birth of the first-born of English children in the New World. They gave to the babe the name of Virginia Dare, and her birthday, the 18th of August, was recorded as a date to be remembered. The colony had fair prospects for the future, and when White set sail for England he left the immigrants, a hundred and eight in number, in full expectation of ultimate success. What their fate was, however, has never been ascertained. The story of their going ashore and joining the Indians is unlikely in itself and has no historical evidence to support it.

Great was the disturbance which now prevailed in England. From a European point of view it might well seem doubtful whether the House of Tudor could longer hold the throne, or indeed whether the English monarchy could survive the coming ordeal. For the Invincible Armada of Spain was now bearing down upon the English coasts. All the resources and energies of the realm were demanded for defence. Although Sir Walter managed to send out two supply-ships to succor his starving colony, his efforts to reach them were unavailing. The vessels which he despatched for that purpose went cruising after Spanish merchantmen, and were themselves run down and captured by a man-of-war.



BAPTISM OF VIRGINIA DARE, THE FIRST WHITE CHILD BORN IN AMERICA.

Not until the spring of 1590 did Governor White finally return to search for the unfortunate colonists. The island was a desert, tenantless and silent. No soul remained to tell the story of the lost.

By this time Sir Walter had expended two hundred thousand dollars of his own means in the attempt to found and foster a colony in America. Not able to prosecute the enterprise further, he gave it up and assigned his proprietary rights to an association of London merchants. It was under the auspices of these that Governor White had made his final search



CAPTURE OF THE ENGLISH SUPPLY SHIPS BY SPANISH CRUISERS.

for the settlers of Roanoke. The result bore so much of discouragement that during the last decade of the sixteenth century the effort at American colonization was not renewed. It was not until the year 1602 that maritime enterprise in the direction of America was again promoted under the flag of England. Bartholomew Gosnold was the man to whom belongs the honor of renewing the work and of carrying a successful expedition to our shores.

GOSNOLD'S EFFORTS TO SETTLE NEW ENGLAND.

More than a century had now elapsed since the discovery of the Western Hemisphere by Columbus and the Cabots. During all this time the old route first taken from Europe to America had continued to be followed by the navigators of England, Spain and France. This route was very circuitous. Ships from the western parts of Europe sailing for America voyaged first southward to the Canary Islands, thence to the West Indies, and thence northward to the coast line of our continent. Abandoning this path as unnecessarily long and out of the way, Gosnold in a single small vessel called the *Concord* sailed directly across the Atlantic and in seven weeks reached the coast of Maine. The distance thus gained was fully two thousand miles and the demonstration was another evidence that the Atlantic was no longer to constitute an impassable barrier between the Old World and the New.

Like his predecessors, Gosnold contemplated the founding of a colony, and with this end in view he brought with him to America a company of emigrants; but the selection of a site for his proposed settlement was difficult and for several weeks he continued to explore from the coast of Maine southward. Capes Elizabeth and Cod were reached and at the latter place the captain with four of his men went ashore. It was the first landing of Englishmen within the limits of New England. Cape Malabar was also passed, and the vessel was at length steered into Buzzard's Bay. Selecting the most westernly island of the Elizabeth group, the colonists debarked and there began the first New England settlement.

But the work had been badly planned. The true instinct of colonization was wanting. A traffic was opened with the natives and the *Concord* was laden with sassafras root, already known in Europe and greatly prized for its fragrance and its supposed virtues in healing. For a season the affairs of the immigrants went well; but when the ship was about to depart for England the settlers became alarmed at the prospect before them and prevailed on Gosnold to take them back to their friends at home. Thus the island was abandoned and the *Concord* returned to England.

Although failure followed failure, the accounts which the sailors and colonists invariably gave of the American shores were filled with praises and notes of astonishment. Interest was thus kept alive in the mother country and one expedition quickly succeeded to another. The next squadron of discovery and settlement was fitted out for Martin Pring. Two vessels called the *Speedwell* and the *Discoverer* were loaded with merchandise suited to the tastes of the Indians, and in April of 1603, a few days after the death of Queen Elizabeth the little fleet sailed for America. They came safely to Penobscot Bay and afterwards explored the harbors and shores of Maine. The coast of Massachusetts was traced southward to the sassafras region, where Pring loaded his ships at Martha's Vineyard and thence returned to England. The two vessels reached Bristol in safety after an absence of about six months.

It seems that at this time the idea of trade almost superseded the notion of colonization. The English voyagers came one after another, loaded their ships and either left certain of their companions to perish or took the intended immigrants back to England. The purpose of planting was for a while feeble and uncertain. In 1605 George Waymouth, under the patronage of the Earl of Southampton, made a voyage to America and came to anchorage among the Islands of St. George on the coast of Maine. He explored the harbor and sailed up the outflowing river for a considerable distance, noting the fine forests of fir and the beauty of the scenery. He also opened a trade with the Indians, some of

whom learned to speak a broken English, and were persuaded by him to visit England. The home-bound voyage was safely made, the vessels reaching Plymouth about the middle of June. This was the last of the trial voyages made by English navigators preparatory to the actual establishment of an American colony.

In these movements, extending from the middle of the sixteenth to the first decade of the seventeenth century, the reader may easily discover the prevailing and ever-recurring features of English progress. It is the peculiarity of the race that it *does everything by tentative stages*. The epoch of which we speak was experimental. The English race seemed to touch and handle the coast of America as if to test its qualities and possibilities. The expeditions seemed to be characterized by timidity and caution. It were hard to discover any other reason than the fundamental character of English enterprise and method for the fact that the navigators of Britain were *so long* in getting a foothold in the New World. Spanish enterprise was marked with dash and boldness. True there was in it much of the impractical, much of the Quixotical spirit. But the English mariners and first emigrants seemed *afraid* of the New World, though they longed to possess it. We shall see hereafter that when once the men who spoke English had obtained a footing in Virginia and New England they held it with a persistency equal to the caution which they had displayed in making their first settlements.



CHAPTER III.

VOYAGES OF THE FRENCH AND DUTCH.



DIFFICULT is it to say precisely at what date the French sea captains first attempted to follow the pathway of Columbus and Cabot across the Atlantic. It is certain that the Government of France was in a condition at the close of the fifteenth century to patronize and encourage such adventures as had given a New World to Castile and Leon. Certain it is also that not many years elapsed after the West Indies and mainland of the new continents were revealed to Europe before the French were abroad at sea, seeking to share in the treasures of discovery. France was very willing to profit by what the man of Genoa and the man of Venice had done for the world.

As early as 1504 the fishermen of Normandy and Brittany began to ply their craft on the banks of Newfoundland. A map of the Gulf of St. Lawrence was drawn by a Frenchman in the year 1506. Two years afterwards a French ship carried home for the astonishment of the court of Louis XII. some of the American Indians, and in 1518 the project of colonizing the New World was formally taken up by Francis I. In 1523 the first voyage of discovery and exploration was planned and Giovanni Verrazzano, a native of Florence, was appointed to conduct the expedition. The particular thing to be accomplished was the discovery of the supposed northwest passage to Asia.

It was near the end of 1523 that Verrazzano left Dieppe, on the frigate *Dolphin*, to begin his voyage. He reached the Madeira islands, but did not depart thence until January of the following year. The weather was unfavorable, the sailing difficult, and it required fifty-five days of hard struggle against wind and wave to bring him to the American coast. This he reached in the latitude of Wilmington. Coasting thence northward, he discovered New York and Narragansett bays. At intervals he made landings and opened traffic with the natives. The Indians were found to be gentle and confiding. A Frenchman who was washed ashore by the surf was treated by them with great kindness and was permitted to return to the ship.

On the coast of Rhode Island, perhaps in the vicinity of Newport, Verrazzano anchored for fifteen days and there continued his trade with the natives. Before leaving the place, however, the French sailors repaid the confidence of the Indians by kidnapping a child and attempting to steal away one of the maidens of the tribe. After this the expedition was continued along the broken line of New England for a great distance. The Indians in this part of the country were wary and suspicious. They would buy neither ornaments nor toys, but were eager to purchase knives and weapons of iron. Passing to the east of Nova

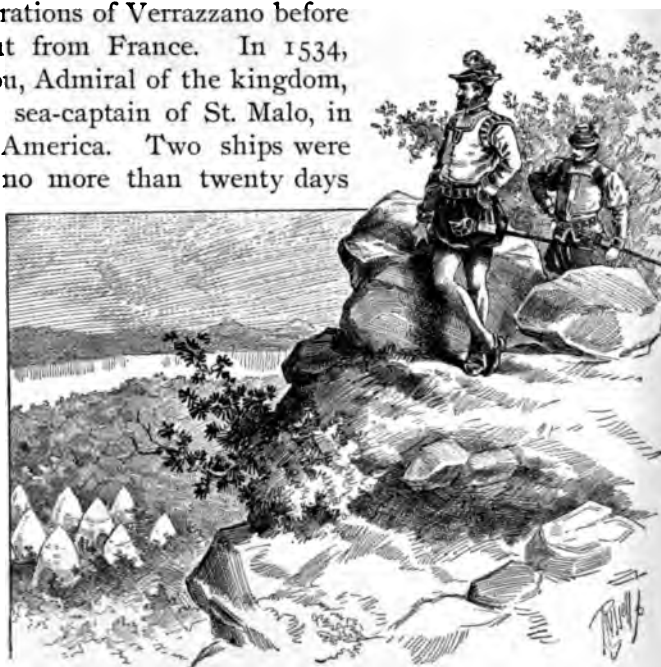
Scotia, the bold navigator reached Newfoundland in the latter part of May, taking possession in the name of his king. On his return to Dieppe, in July of 1524, he wrote for Francis I. a rather rambling account of his discoveries. His work, however, was recognized by the sovereign, and the name of NEW FRANCE was given to that part of our continent the coast line of which had been traced by the adventurous crew of the *Dolphin*.

The condition of affairs in Europe at the close of the first quarter of the sixteenth century was unfavorable in the last degree for carrying forward the work of discovery and colonization abroad. The Reformation had broken out in Germany. Three great monarchs, Francis I. of France, Henry VIII. of England and Charles V. of Spain and Germany, loomed up to a kingly stature that had not been hitherto attained since the days of Charlemagne. Mutual jealousy supervened among them. Each watched the other two with ill-concealed animosity and dread. On the whole, Francis I. and his government suffered most in the contest of cross-purposes which held all things in its meshes. Ten years elapsed after the discoveries and explorations of Verrazzano before another expedition could be sent out from France. In 1534, however, Phillippe de Chabot, of Poitou, Admiral of the kingdom, selected Jacques, or James, Cartier, a sea-captain of St. Malo, in Brittany, to make a new voyage to America. Two ships were equipped for the enterprise, and after of sailing* under cloudless skies came to anchor on the 10th of May off the coast of Newfoundland. By the middle of July Cartier had circumnavigated the island, crossed the gulf of St. Lawrence and found the bay of Chaleurs.

VOYAGES OF JAMES CARTIER.

Like his predecessors, Cartier had expected to discover somewhere in those waters a passage westward to Asia. Disappointed in this hope, he changed his course to the north and followed the coast as far as Gaspé Bay. Here upon the point of land he set up the cross, bearing a shield with the lily of France, and proclaimed the French king monarch of the country. Following his explorations, he next entered the estuary and river St. Lawrence. Thinking it impracticable, however, to pass the winter in the New World, Cartier turned his prows toward France and in thirty days reached St. Malo in safety.

The news of this voyage and its results produced great excitement. As had been the case in England, the young nobility of France became ambitious to seek fortune in the New World. Another squadron of three vessels was fitted out and many men of high rank joined the expedition. The sails were spread by zealous hands and on the 19th of May, 1535, the new voyage was begun. In this instance, however, stormy weather prevailed on the



CARTIER ON THE SUMMIT OF MONT REAL, NOW MONTREAL.

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* So say all the authorities, but it is incredible that a rude ship of the early part of the sixteenth century should cross the Atlantic in twenty days. The Author suggests that the error in the calendar, then amounting to nine or ten days, should be added to the twenty of the books.

Atlantic and Newfoundland was not reached until the 10th of August. It was the day of St. Lawrence and the name of that martyr was accordingly given to the gulf and river. The expedition proceeded up the noble stream to the island of Orleans where the ships were moored in a place of safety.

Two Indians whom Cartier had taken with him to France now gave information that higher up the river there was an important town on an island called in the native tongue Hochelaga. Cartier proceeding in his boats found it as the natives had said. A beautiful village lay at the foot of a high hill in the middle of the island. Climbing to the top of the hill and viewing the scene, Cartier named the island and town Mont Real—a name which has been transmitted to history by the city of Montreal. The country was declared to belong "by the right of discovery" to the King of France, and then the boats dropped down the river to the ships. During the winter that ensued twenty-five of Cartier's men were swept off by the scurvy, a malady hitherto unknown in Europe.



Other hardships came with the season. Snows and excessive cold prevailed for months together. Unaccustomed to the rigors of such terrible weather, the French sailors and colonists shrank from it, and their enthusiasm died out, so that with the coming of spring preparations were made to return to France. The cross and shield and lily were again planted in the soil of the New World and the homeward voyage began. But before the ships left their anchorage the good king of the Hurons who had treated Cartier and his men with great generosity, was enticed on shipboard and carried off to die a captive in the hands of the French. On the 6th of July the fleet reached

St. Malo, but the accounts which Cartier was able to give of the new country and his experiences therein were such as to produce great discouragement. Neither silver nor gold had been found on the banks of the St. Lawrence. What was a New World good for that had not silver and gold?

After the return of Cartier there was another lull of five years. At length Francis de la Roque, Lord of Roberval, in Picardy, revived the project of planting a colony beyond the Atlantic. Following this purpose, he received from the court of France a commission to carry an expedition with emigrants to the country of the St. Lawrence. He was given the titles of Viceroy and Lieutenant-General of New France, and much other vain-glorious ceremony attended his preparations. Roberval was wise enough to avail himself of the experience and abilities of his predecessor. Cartier was retained in the service and was induced to conduct the new expedition with the titles of Chief Pilot and Captain-General.

A COLONY OF DESPERATE CRIMINALS.

We here reach one of the astonishing circumstances which have recurred time and again in the founding of distant States. The promoters of such enterprises find difficulty in securing a sufficient number of emigrants. Hereupon the government comes to the rescue

with the offer to discharge its criminal classes through the vent of the colonial enterprise. Roberval made but little headway in collecting his colony, and appealed to the court for aid. The government responded by opening the prisons of the kingdom and giving freedom to whoever would join the expedition. There was a rush of robbers, swindlers and murderers, and the lists were immediately filled. Only counterfeiters and traitors were denied the privilege of gaining their liberty in the New World.

The equipment of the squadron was completed, and the emigrant colony made up—for the most part of criminals and the refuse of French society. Five ships under the command of Cartier left France in May of 1541, and reached the St. Lawrence in safety. The expedition proceeded to the present site of Quebec, where a fort was erected and named Charlesbourg. Here the colonists passed the winter. There was, however, neither peace nor promise of good. Cartier, offended at his subordinate position, was evidently willing that the enterprise should come to naught. He and Roberval were never of one opinion, and when the latter, in June of 1542, arrived at Quebec, bringing immigrants and supplies, Cartier secretly got together his own part of the squadron and returned to Europe. Roberval found himself alone in New France with three shiploads of criminals, some of whom had to be whipped and others hanged.

During the autumn the viceroy, instead of laboring to establish his colony, spent his time in trying to discover the northwest passage. The winter was passed in gloom, despondency and suffering, and the following spring was welcomed by the colonists, for the opportunity which it gave them of returning to France. Thus the enterprise which had been undertaken with so much pomp came to naught. In 1549 Sir Francis de la Roque again gathered a large company of emigrants and renewed the project of colonization. The expedition departed under favorable omens, but the squadron was never heard of afterwards.

Such was the effect of these failures and such the weakness of French adventures that a half-century now elapsed before the effort to colonize America was renewed by the Government. Private enterprise, however, and religious persecution in the meantime worked together to accomplish in Florida and Carolina what the Government of France had failed to accomplish on the St. Lawrence. For Protestantism had appeared in France, and had begun to suffer at the hands of the King and the Catholic Church. It was about the mi-



ROBERVAL'S SEARCH FOR A NORTH-WEST PASSAGE.

dle of the sixteenth century when the celebrated Gaspard de Coligni, leader of the French Huguenots, and now serving as Admiral of France, formed the design of establishing in America a refuge for his persecuted fellow-countrymen. It would appear that the King was at this period not unwilling that the Huguenots should escape from the country to foreign lands. In 1562 Coligni obtained from Charles IX. the privilege of planting a French Protestant colony in the New World. John Ribault, of Dieppe, a brave and experienced captain, was selected to lead the Huguenots to the land of promise.

AN ASYLUM FOR THE PERSECUTED HUGUENOTS.

A company of the exiles was soon collected. The squadron sailed away and reached the coast of Florida in safety. The river St. Johns was entered by the French, and named the River of May. The fleet then sailed northward to the entrance of Port Royal. The colonists were landed on an island, where a stone engraved with the arms of their native land was set up to mark the place. A fort was built and in honor of Charles IX. was named CAROLINA. Here Ribault left a garrison of twenty-six men and returned to France for additional emigrants and supplies. Civil war, however, was now raging in the kingdom, and it was found impossible to procure the needed stores or other emigrants. Meanwhile the men left in America became mutinous with long waiting, killed their leader, constructed a rude brig and put to sea. For a long time they were driven at the mercy of the winds and waves, but were at last picked up, half starved, by an English ship and were carried back to France.

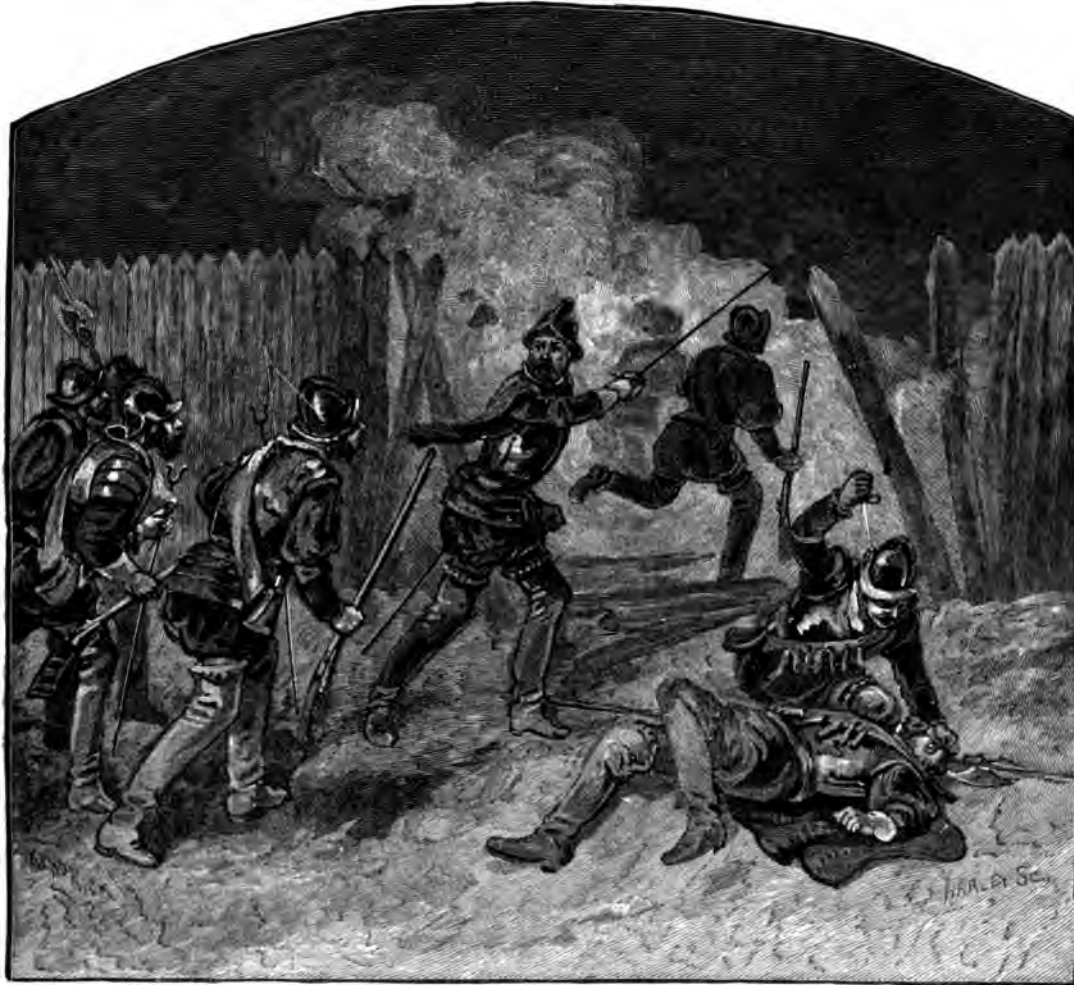
Admiral Coligni, however, resolved to prosecute his enterprise. He planned a second colony and appointed as its leader Rene de Laudonniere. But the character of the second company of emigrants was bad. The event showed that they were for the most part abandoned men, idle and improvident. The leader on reaching the American coast avoided the harbor of Port Royal, and chose the river St. Johns for the proposed colony. Here he built a fort, but the immigrants—the larger part—as soon as opportunity offered and acting under the pretence of an escape from famine, contrived to get possession of two of the ships and sailed away. Instead of returning to France, however, they took to piracy until they were caught, brought back and hanged. The rest of the settlers were on the eve of breaking up the colony when Ribault, who had commanded the first expedition, arrived from France with a cargo of supplies. It was at this juncture that the Spaniard, Melendez, discovering the whereabouts of the Huguenots and regarding them as intruders in the territory of Spain fell upon and destroyed the entire company.

A DREADFUL VENGEANCE.

The news of this atrocity created great sorrow and indignation among the Huguenots of France. Dominic de Gourges, a soldier of Gascony, prepared to avenge the death of his countrymen. He planned an expedition against the Spanish settlements in Florida and soon came down upon them with signal vengeance. His squadron was fitted at his own expense. With three ships and only fifty seamen he arrived in midwinter on the coast of Florida. With this handful he surprised successively the three forts on the river St. Johns and made prisoners of the garrisons. Then when he was unable to hold his position any longer he condemned and hanged his leading captives to the branches of trees, putting up this inscription to explain what he had done: "Not Spaniards, but murderers."

The sixteenth century drew to a close. It was not until 1598 that the attention of the French Government was once more directed to the claims which the early navigators had established to portions of the American coast. In this year the Marquis de la Roche, a

nobleman of influence and distinction, took up the cause and obtained a commission authorizing him to found an empire in the New World. Unfortunately the colony was again to be made up by opening the prisons and granting immunity to such of the inmates as would emigrate. The expedition soon reached Nova Scotia and anchored at Sable Island, a place of desolation and gloom. Here the Marquis left forty men to found the colony while he himself returned to France for a cargo of supplies. Soon after his arrival at home he died, and for seven dreary years the new French empire, composed of forty convicts, languished on Sable Island. At last they were mercifully picked up by passing ships and carried back



DE GORGES AVENGING THE MURDER OF THE HUGUENOTS.

to France. It was reckoned by the authorities that the punishment of the poor wretches had been sufficient and they were never remanded to prison.

At last, however, the time came when a permanent French colony should be established in America. In the year 1603 the Government of France granted the sovereignty of the country from the latitude of Philadelphia to one degree north of Montreal to the French Count, Pierre du Guast, commonly known as De Monts. He received from the King a patent giving him a monopoly of the fur trade in the new country and conceding religious freedom for Huguenot immigrants.

In March of the following year De Monts sailed from France with two shiploads of colonists and reached the Bay of Fundy. The summer was spent in explorations and in trade with the Indians. At length Poutrincourt, captain of one of the ships, having discovered on the northwest coast of Nova Scotia an excellent harbor, obtained a grant of the lands adjacent and went ashore to plant a colony. The viceroy, with the remainder, crossed the bay and built a rude fort at the mouth of the river St. Croix. But in the following spring this place was abandoned and a company returned to the settlement of Poutrincourt. Here on the 14th of November, 1605, the foundations of the first permanent French settlement in America were laid. The name of PORT ROYAL was given to the ford and harbor and the country was called ARCADIA.

Now it was that the famous Samuel Champlain appeared on the scene. Already he had justly earned the reputation of being one of the most soldierly men of his times. As early as 1603 he had been commissioned by a company of Rouen merchants to explore the country of the St. Lawrence and establish a trading-post. The discovery had at last been made that the abundant furs of these regions were a surer source of riches than impossible mines of gold and silver.

The expedition of Champlain reached the St. Lawrence in safety, and the spot on which Quebec now stands was chosen as the site for a fort. In the autumn the leader returned to France and published a favorable account of his enterprise. It was not for five years, however, namely in 1608, that Champlain succeeded in returning to America. On the 3d of July in that year the foundations of Quebec were laid. In 1609 the leader and two other French adventurers joined a company of the Hurons, then at war with the Iroquois of New York. On this expedition Champlain ascended the Sorel River until he discovered the narrow lake which has ever since borne his name.

FIRST PERMANENT FRENCH SETTLEMENT.

For three or four years the settlement at Quebec languished ; but in 1612 the Protestant party in France came into power and Champlain was enabled by the favor of the great Condé, Protector of the Protestants, to prosecute his American enterprise. For the third time he returned to New France bringing with him a company of Franciscan friars to preach to the Indians. They and the Huguenots quarrelled not a little and Champlain a second time joined the Indians. His company was defeated in battle and he himself, seriously wounded, was obliged to remain all winter among the Hurons. In the summer of 1617 he returned to the colony. Three years afterwards the foundation of the fortress of St. Louis was laid and in 1624 the structure was completed—a circumstance which secured the permanence of the French settlements in the valley of the St. Lawrence.

We have now followed with some care the lines of English exploration and French adventure down to the beginning of the seventeenth century. Let us in the next place note the efforts made by the people of Holland to gain a footing in the New World. The first Dutch settlement in America was made on Manhattan Island. The story of the planting introduces to us one of the most remarkable men who left a name and impress on the primitive history of our country. This was no other than the illustrious Henry, or Hendrik, Hudson. By birth this great navigator was an Englishman. The year 1607 found him in the employ of a company of London merchants, by whom he was commissioned to traverse the North Atlantic and discover a route either eastward or westward to the Indies.

On his first voyage, made in a single ship, Hudson endeavored to circumnavigate Europe to the north. He succeeded in reaching the island of Spitzbergen, but was there obliged by the rigor of the seas, filled as they were with icebergs, to return to England.



DINING ROOM OF THE FRENCH COLONISTS AT PORT ROYAL.

In the next year he renewed the voyage, but was unable to find the northeastern passage. His courage, however, would not brook defeat, and when his employers declined to furnish the means for further explorations he went to Holland and succeeded in finding in Amsterdam the patronage which had been denied him in his own country.

At this time there existed at Amsterdam a powerful commercial corporation known as the Dutch East India Company. Before the officers of this association Sir Henry appeared, and from them soon obtained assistance. He was given a small ship called the *Half-Moon* and was directed to prosecute his search for an all-water route to the Indies. In April of 1609 he sailed on his third voyage into the seas north of Europe. He passed the capes of Norway, reached the seventy-second parallel of latitude, turned eastward, gained the frozen passage between Lapland and Nova Zembla, but was there turned back by the icebergs. Perceiving that it was impossible to beat his way to the east through these inhospitable waters he turned his prow to the west, determining if possible to find somewhere on the American coast an open channel by which he might reach first the Pacific and afterwards the shores of Asia.

EXPLORATIONS OF HENRY HUDSON.

It was the month of July, 1609, when Sir Henry reached Newfoundland. Repairing his ship he sailed southward, touched Cape Cod; and by the middle of August came to the Chesapeake. Still the northwest passage was not found. Turning to the north, Hudson began to examine the coast more closely than any of his predecessors had done. On the 28th of the month he entered and explored Delaware Bay. He next traced the coast line to New Jersey, and on the 3d of September the *Half-Moon* found a safe anchorage within Sandy Hook. Two days afterwards a landing was made; the Indians came in great numbers to the scene, bringing their gifts of wild fruits, corn and oysters. New York harbor was explored, and on the 10th of the month the *Half-Moon* entered the noble river which has ever since borne the name of Hudson.

For eight days the *Half-Moon* ascended the stream. On either hand were magnificent forests, beautiful hills, palisades, fertile valleys between, planted with Indian corn, and mountains rising in the distance. On the 19th the ship was moored at the place afterwards called Kinderhook. Hudson and a part of the crew proceeded in the boats as far as the site of Albany. The up-river exploration continued for several days when the party returned to the *Half-Moon*, the vessel dropped down stream, and on the 4th of October sailed for Holland. On the home-bound voyage Hudson, not unwilling that his former employers should know of his great discoveries, put in at Dartmouth where the ship was detained by orders of King James and the crew claimed as Englishmen. Hudson was obliged to content himself with sending to Amsterdam an account of his great discoveries and his enforced detention in England.

The sequel showed that Sir Henry was not greatly discomposed by his captivity. The English merchants came forward with alacrity, furnishing the money for another expedition. A ship called the *Discovery* was given to Hudson and in the summer of 1610 he again sailed for the West. The vision of the Indies was before his imagination, but he was destined never to see the land of gems and spices or to return to his own country.

It had now been determined by actual exploration that no northwest passage existed between Florida and Maine. The whole coast had been minutely traced and no inlets found except bays and the estuaries of rivers. Therefore the coveted passage must be found far to the north between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Greenland. Sir Henry now followed the track of Frobisher and on the 2d of August reached the strait which was henceforth to

bear the name of Hudson. No ship had ever before entered these waters. At the entrance the way was barred with many islands ; but further to the west the bay seemed to open, the ocean widened to right and left, and the route to Cathay was at last revealed ! So believed the great captain and his crew ; but further to the west the inhospitable shores were seen to narrow again on the more inhospitable sea, and Hudson found himself surrounded with the terrors of winter in the frozen gulf of the north.

He bore up against the hardships of his situation until his provisions were almost exhausted. Spring was at hand and the day of escape had well nigh arrived when the crew broke out in mutiny. They seized Sir Henry and his only son with seven others who had remained faithful to the commander, threw them into an open boat and cast them off among the icebergs. Nothing further was ever heard of the illustrious mariner who had contributed so largely to the geographical knowledge of his times and made possible the establishment of still another nationality in the New World.

Meanwhile, in 1610, the *Half-Moon* was liberated at Dartmouth and returned to Amsterdam. The Dutch merchants reached out eagerly to avail themselves of the discoveries made by Hudson. Ships were at once sent out to engage in the fur-trade on the banks of the river which that mariner had discovered. This traffic was profitable in the highest degree and one voyage followed another. In 1614 the States-General of Holland passed an act granting to the merchants of Amsterdam exclusive rights of trade and establishment within the limits of the country explored by Sir Henry Hudson.



THE HALF-MOON IN THE HUDSON.

Under this commission a squadron of five trading vessels soon arrived at Manhattan Island. Here some rude huts had already been built by former traders ; but now a fort for the defence of the place was erected, and the name of NEW AMSTERDAM was given to the settlement.

In this same summer of 1614 Captain Adrian Block, commanding one of the trading ships, made his way through East River into Long Island Sound. Thence he explored the coast as far as Narragansett Bay and even to Cape Cod. Meanwhile Cornelius May, captain of the *Fortune*, sailed southward along the coast as far as Delaware Bay. Upon these various voyages Holland set up her uncertain claim to the country which was now named NEW NETHERLANDS, extending from Cape Henlopen to Cape Cod.

CHAPTER IV.

PROGRESS OF DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT.



By the beginning of the seventeenth century destiny had determined the relative parts and places of the European possessions in the New World. The French had obtained a footing in the extreme north. The Dutch had planted a settlement at the mouth of the Hudson. The English—as we shall presently see—had secured two permanent plantations, the first in Virginia and the second in Massachusetts. As for Spain, her portion lay to the south. There her adventurers and conquerors had established themselves much more successfully than had the rival nations in the other parts of our continent. We may here with propriety revert briefly to the circumstances of Spanish discovery and colonization in the southern parts of North America.

After Columbus, in 1499, came Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator of some daring but no great celebrity. He succeeded in reaching the eastern coast of South America; but it does not appear that his explorations there were of great importance. After an absence of two years, however, he returned to Europe to give to the civilized peoples the first published account of the New World. From this circumstance the name of AMERICA was conferred on our continent rather than Columbia, which a true fame would have given to the hemisphere discovered by the man of Genoa.

Other companions and followers of Columbus came rapidly in his track. Among these we may mention first of all Alonzo de Ojeda. This adventurer, so brave and rash, was a native of Cuenca, in Spain, where he was born in 1465. He had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage to America, and had done service of many kinds, as well as mischief, in the West Indies. In the year 1499 he obtained permission to make a voyage on his own account, and set out from Spain on a vessel called the *Santa Maria*. He was assisted by Juan de la Cosa, who had been the pilot of Columbus.

It were long to tell the story of the expedition. Ojeda beat about among the Bahamas, gathered a cargo of slaves and returned to Cadiz in June of 1500. Two years afterwards he sailed on a second voyage, and attempted to found a colony in Santa Cruz; but his tyranny led to his arrest, and he was taken to Hispaniola in chains. In 1508 we find him engaged in an expedition to the mainland, carrying with him one greater than himself, that Francisco Pizarro who was destined to become the conqueror of Peru. Ojeda founded on the shore of the gulf of Darien the colony of San Sebastien. He attempted to make a voyage to Hispaniola for supplies, but was seized by the captain of the vessel on which he took passage. The ship was soon afterwards wrecked and Ojeda was set free in Cuba.

Meanwhile, Vasco Nunez de Balboa arrived in Central America and deposed Ojeda from authority. The latter sank into misery, and finally died in Hispaniola from a wound given by a poisoned arrow while he was at San Sebastien.

De Balboa had been commissioned as governor of Antigua by the Adelantado Diego Columbus. Reaching the land of his destination, he heard rumors of another ocean but a short distance to the west. He accordingly left Antigua in 1513 and began a toilsome journey through the isthmus to the western shore. He struggled through tangled forests, over rugged heights and almost impassable mountains, constantly fighting his way against the hostile natives, until the 25th of September, when gaining a summit he looked down upon the illimitable Pacific. To this he gave the name of "Mar del Sur" or "Sea of the South." Not satisfied with merely seeing the great water, he waded in a short distance from the shore and drawing his sword, after the pompous Spanish fashion, took possession of the ocean in the name of the King of Spain.

PONCE DE LEON IN FLORIDA.

Many of the Spanish noblemen who flourished at the beginning of the sixteenth century were eager to acquire for themselves new estates and honors in the West Indies and in the unexplored regions of our continent. Among these was the old cavalier, Ponce de Leon, who received the appointment of governor of Porto Rico. Ponce had been a companion of Columbus on his second voyage, but like many others had broken away to become an adventurer on his own account. His governorship of Porto Rico soon brought him riches. But he was already aged and wrinkled, and what were riches to an old cavalier who could no longer enjoy the pleasures of youth? In the meantime a tradition had gained currency to the effect that somewhere in the Bahamas there was a fountain of perpetual youth. The story gained credence in Spain, and particularly among the Spanish adventurers who had found footing in the West Indies and in Central America.

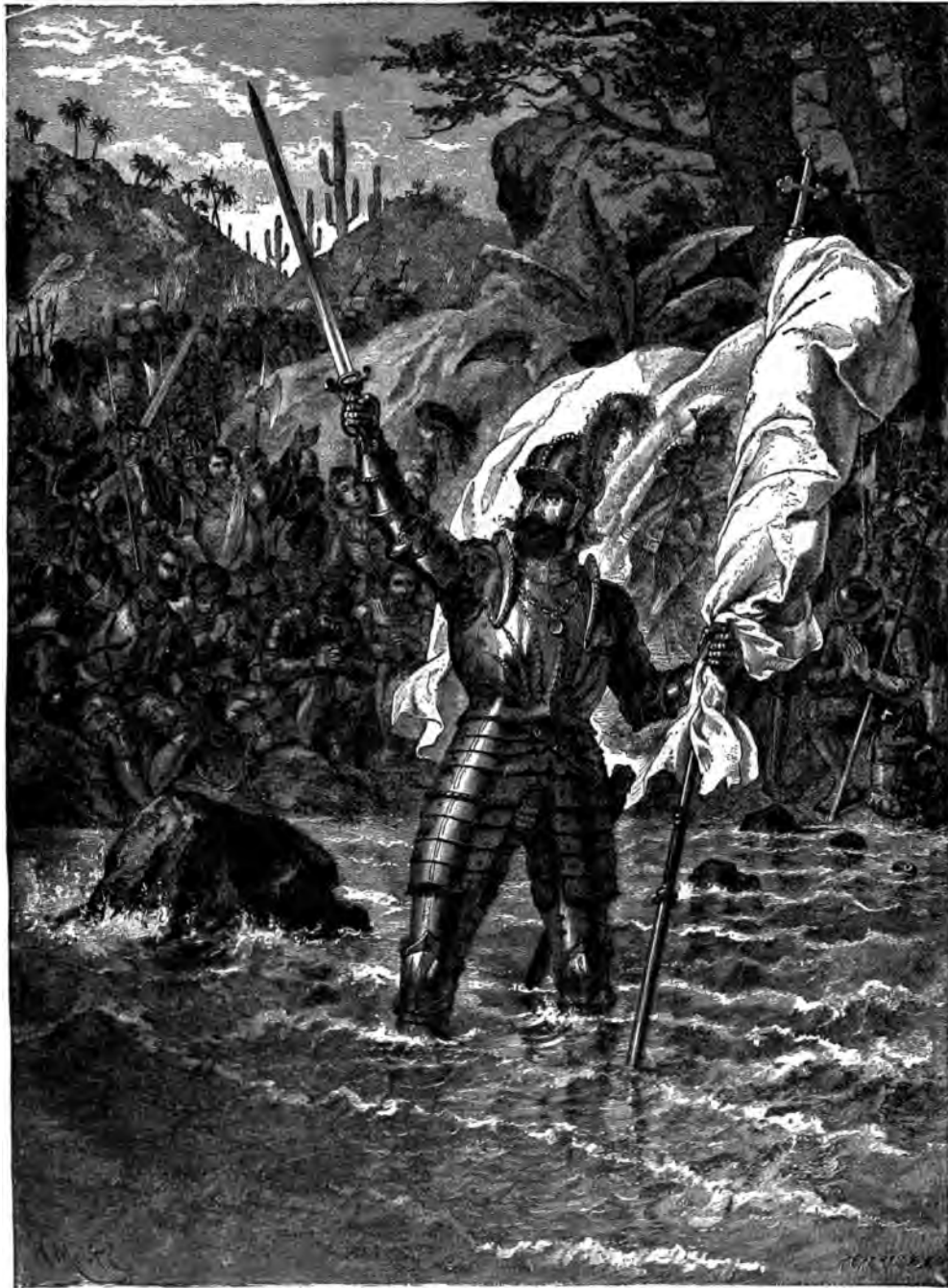
To none did the tradition of a fountain of youth appeal more strongly than to the aged Ponce de Leon; for he had need. He resolved to find the fountain. Accordingly he fitted out a squadron in Porto Rico and in 1512 set sail on the quest. He first stopped at San Salvador and the neighboring islands, but afterwards steering northwestward from Cuba he came, on the 27th of March, in sight of an unknown shore. This at first he supposed to be another island of the great group with which he was already acquainted. The coast line was one of great beauty. As the ships drew near waving forests appeared, green leaves, birds of song and the fragrance of unseen blossoms. It was the day of the *Pasques de Flores*, or Feast of Flowers, known in the ritual of the Church as *Pascua Florida*. Partly as descriptive of the delightful landscape and partly in commemoration of the day, De Leon gave to the new land the name of FLORIDA—the Land of Flowers.

The coast which the adventurer had reached was that which a half century later was occupied and colonized by the Spaniards. Here in after times were to be laid the foundations of St. Augustine, the oldest city in America. The country was claimed for the King of Spain, and De Leon at once began the search for the youth-restoring fountain. He turned southward and explored the coast for many leagues, discovered and named the Tortugas, and then sailed back to Porto Rico, not perceptibly younger than when he started.

PONCE DE LEON IS FATALLY WOUNDED.

But the voyage had added new lands to the possessions of Spain. The King rewarded Ponce with the governorship of his Land of Flowers and sent him thither again to found a colony. But the old cavalier was slow to prosecute the work. Not until 1521 did he reach

his province and then it was only to find the Indians in hostility. Scarcely had he landed when they gave him battle. Many of the Spaniards were killed and the rest were obliged to find safety on the ships. Ponce de Leon himself received a mortal wound and was



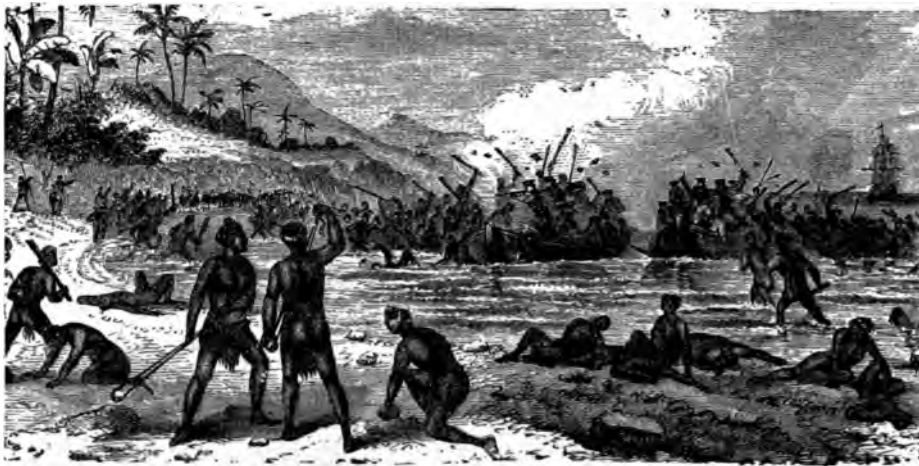
BALBOA CLAIMING POSSESSION OF THE PACIFIC.

carried back to Cuba to die. Such was the first passage in the history of Florida.

Before the events just described, namely in 1517, Yucatan and the bay of Campeachy

were discovered by Fernandez de Cordova. While exploring the northern coast of this country he also was attacked by the hostile Indians and was mortally wounded in battle. In the following year the coast of Mexico was explored for a great distance by Juan de Grijalva, nephew of Valasquez, governor of Cuba. He was accompanied and directed in the expedition by the same pilot who had served under Cordova. Proceeding along the coast he found constantly increasing signs of the presence of a civilized race of men. He opened communication with the Mexicans, traded with them and learned of their capital city and of their great monarch Montezuma. Returning to Cuba, Valasquez was angry at his subordinate for not taking possession of the country and planting a colony. He accordingly superseded Grijalva and gave command of the new expedition to Hernando Cortez.

It was now the year 1519. Cortez landed with his fleet at Tabasco and began his famous conquest of Mexico. The news of the invasion spread abroad and the Mexicans were in consternation. Cortez made his way to Vera Cruz, where he was met by ambassadors from Montezuma. The purpose of the Mexican monarch was to dissuade the terrible



FLORIDA INDIANS FURIOUSLY ATTACK THE SPANIARDS.

Spaniards from making their way into the interior. But Cortez was not to be put from his purpose. He marched on the Mexican capital and soon came upon such a scene as had not hitherto been witnessed or even expected in the New World.

From the mountain tops the Spaniards looked down upon the valley of Mexico. There lay the splendid city, glittering like a vision of spires and temples. In vain did Montezuma try to keep his inexorable foe at bay. On the 8th of November, 1519, the Spanish army entered the city and was quartered in the great square near the temple of the Aztec god of war.

MARVELLOUS PANORAMA OF THE MEXICAN CAPITAL.

It were long to tell the story of the events which now ensued. Cortez made himself familiar with the city and with the manner of life among the Mexicans. He found vast treasures of silver and gold, works of art, aqueducts and causeways, temples where human sacrifices were offered, arsenals filled with bows and javelins. But in the midst of all this wealth and abundance the condition of the conqueror grew critical. There were mutterings of outbreak. The Spaniards were few. The Mexicans were hundreds of thousands. In the emergency Cortez devised a plot to obtain possession of the person of Montezuma and hold him as a prisoner. He was accordingly enticed into the power of the Spaniards and was compelled to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Spain. A payment of six million three hundred thousand dollars with an enormous annual tribute, was exacted of the captive emperor.

The fame of all this was quickly borne to Cuba. Valasquez, the governor, was heated with jealousy and determined to arrest the progress of Cortez. He accordingly prepared a new expedition for Mexico and gave the command to Pamphilo de Narvaez, with orders to supersede Cortez in the government and take possession of the country. The forces of Narvaez numbered twelve hundred soldiers besides a thousand Indian servants and guides. But Cortez was on the alert. He learned of the animosity of the Cuban governor and of the means taken for his own overthrow. He determined to meet the forces of Narvaez and to conquer them or die in the struggle. When the new army arrived at Vera Cruz, Cortez, leaving behind his lieutenant Alvarado to preserve order in Mexico, was already near at hand to confront his powerful antagonist. On the night of the 26th of May, 1520, he burst suddenly into the camp of Narvaez and compelled the whole force to surrender. He transferred the new army to his own command and marched back in triumph to Mexico.

In the meantime, however, war had broken out in the city and for months together there was almost constant fighting between the Spaniards and the Mexicans. Cortez compelled Montezuma to appear as a prisoner on the top of the palace and advise his people to submit; but they had now become desperate and in the fury of despair let fly their javelins at the Emperor. He was mortally wounded and died of wretchedness. At one time Cortez was driven out of the city; but in December of 1520 he returned and began a siege which continued until August of the following year. At length the city was taken; the empire of the Montezumas was overthrown and Mexico became a Spanish Province.

VOYAGE AND DEATH OF MAGELLAN.

At the very time of this invasion and conquest Ferdinand Magellan was accomplishing the most daring enterprise which marked the beginning of the sixteenth century. To him belongs the honor of having first found the all-water route from Western Europe to Eastern Asia. Magellan was a Portuguese by birth, a navigator by profession. Having formed the purpose to discover a southwest passage to the Indies, he appealed to the King of Portugal for ships and men. But the monarch listened coldly and gave no encouragement to his subject. Magellan hereupon renounced his allegiance, went to Spain and laid his plans before the Emperor Charles V. The Spanish monarch caught eagerly at the opportunity, ordered a fleet of five ships at the public expense and gave the command to Magellan. The voyage was undertaken from Seville in August of 1519. The navigator first reached the coast of South America and then beat his way southward until he reached the eastern mouth of that strait which still bears the name of its discoverer. Through this he passed into the open and boundless ocean, to which he gave the name of the PACIFIC.

Sailing to the north of west, the expedition reached the Ladrões in March of 1520.



HERNANDO CORTEZ.

Here Magellan was killed in a battle with the natives. A new captain was chosen and the voyage continued to the Moluccas, where a cargo of spices was gathered for the market of Europe. Only a single ship now remained in fit condition for the homebound voyage; but in this vessel the heroic crew bore on by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 17th of September, 1522, arrived in Spain. The circumnavigation of the globe had been

accomplished. The theory of Strabo, of the "olde wise astronomers," of Mandeville and of Columbus had been demonstrated, and the work which the great Mercator was soon to perform in mapping the seas and continents was made an easy task.

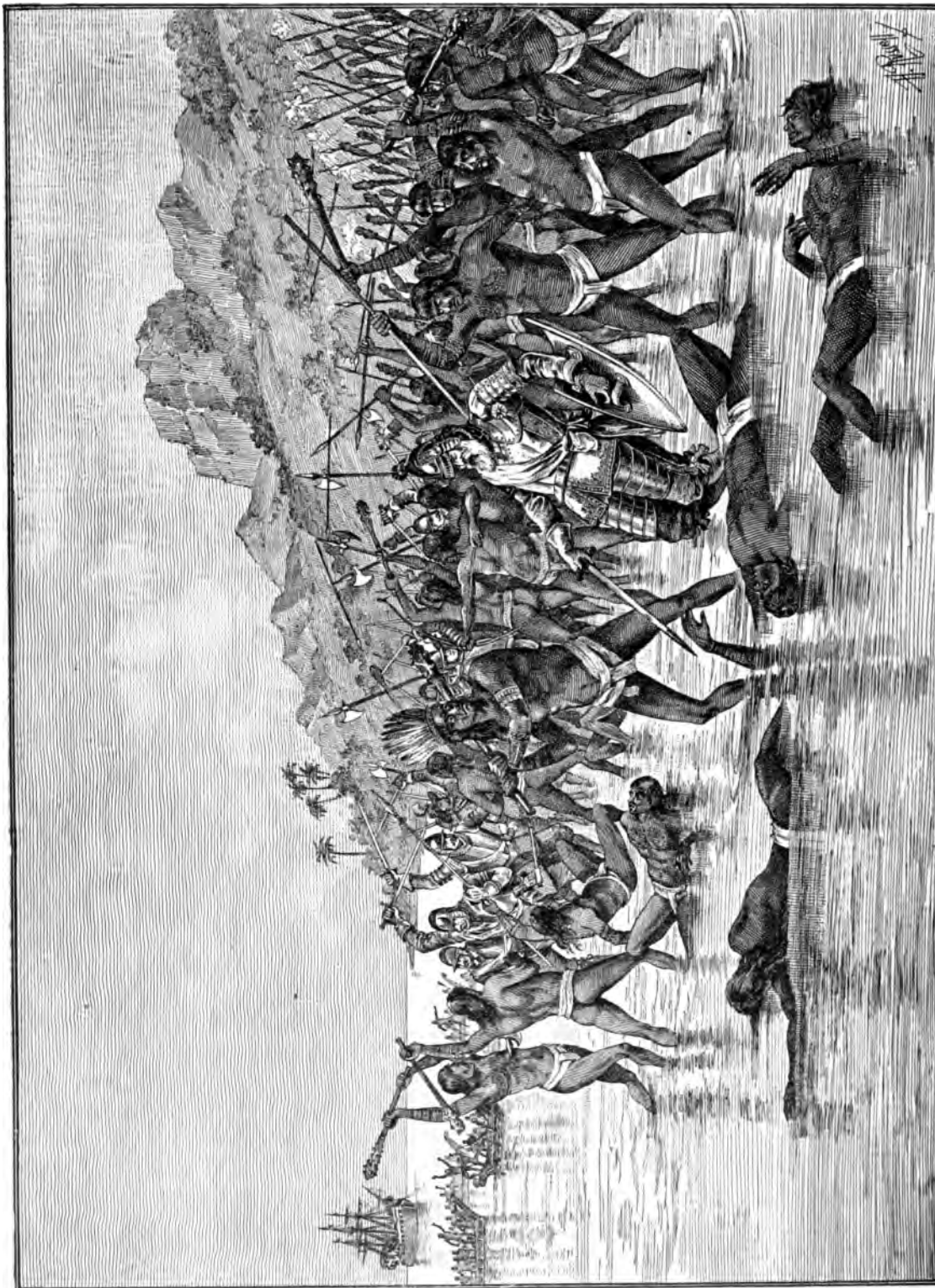
Meanwhile the work of Spanish colonization was continued with success. In 1526 Charles V. appointed De Narvaez governor of Florida, with the privilege of conquest. The latter reached his province at Tampa Bay in April, 1528. His force consisted of two hundred and sixty soldiers and forty horsemen. The Indians had now learned with good reason to distrust the Spaniards under all circumstances. They adopted, therefore, the policy of craft and falsehood in their dealings with the otherwise unconquerable foe. They told the Spaniards that the gold trinkets which they wore had come from the north, where there were great peoples and cities and treasures. The hint was eagerly caught by the Spaniards and they struck out boldly in the direction indicated. They confidently expected to find an empire in the interior,



DEATH OF MONTEZUMA.

and to make such conquest as Cortez had done in Mexico. They penetrated the forest, crossed great swamps, fought with the savages, reached the Withlacoochee and the Suwanee and finally came to Apalachee, a squalid village of forty cabins. This then was the mighty city to which their guides had directed them.

It now remained for the Spaniards to return to the coast. Through great fatigue and hunger they at last reached the sea at the harbor of St. Mark's, constructed some brigantines and attempted to reach Mexico. They were finally driven ashore by a storm, and all



DEATH OF MAGELLAN.

the company perished except four men, who, under the leadership of their lieutenant, De Vaca, made their way to the Pacific coast, and were at last rescued at the village of San Miguel.

THE CHIVALROUS EXPEDITION OF DE SOTO.

The expedition of Narvaez was only a scene compared with the drama that was to follow. The year 1537 witnessed an adventure the most remarkable of any by which the interior of Spanish America was made known to the world. In that year Ferdinand De Soto, most cavalier of the cavaliers, was appointed governor of Cuba and Florida with the privilege of exploring and colonizing the country at will. De Soto was a nobleman of great distinction and popularity and he had no difficulty in gathering to his standard in Spain a company of six hundred wealthy and high-born adventurers. Many of them were of knightly birth and all were clad in the elegant apparel and armor of the Middle Ages.

The preparations for the expedition were elaborate to the last degree. Arms and stores were provided; shackles were wrought for the slaves whom the adventurers expected to

take in the New World; the tools for the forge and workshop were supplied; bloodhounds were bought and trained for hunting fugitives. A full stock of gaming apparatus was made ready for the young knights. Twelve priests were secured for the introduction of religion, and last of all a drove of swine was collected to fatten on the maize and mast of the new country.



DE SOTO LANDING HIS FORCES IN FLORIDA.

The expedition left the harbor of San Lucar and came to Havana in safety. De Soto appointed his wife to govern Cuba in his absence, and in June of 1539 the squadron anchored in Tampa Bay. When a landing was effected an expedition was at once organized to explore the interior. For two months the cavaliers marched northward through the silent forests and gloomy morasses. In October they reached Flint River, where they prepared to spend the winter. In the following spring they were allured with the tradition of an empire ruled by a wealthy queen; but the story proved to be a delusion. The wanderers continued their march down the Alabama River as far as Mauville, or Mobile, where they fought a great battle with the Indians. Two thousand five hundred of the latter were killed and their town destroyed. The losses of the Spaniards were considerable; but instead of turning to Pensacola where their supply ships had arrived, the proud and stubborn cavaliers set their faces to the north and marched on till, by the middle of December, they reached the country of the Chickasaws. The following winter they spent in a deserted Indian village and with the opening of spring came to the Mississippi. The point where the majestic Father

of Waters was first seen by white men was at the lower Chickasaw bluff near the 34th parallel of latitude. Barges were built and in the latter part of May the Spaniards crossed to the western bank.

The expedition now proceeded into the land of the Dakotas. The country was abundant in wild fruits, and the natives were inoffensive and superstitious. The Spaniards reached the river St. Francis and crossed into the southern limits of the present State of Missouri in the vicinity of New Madrid. The next stage was about two hundred miles. The adventurers came to the Hot Springs and passed the winter of 1541-42 on the Washita River.

It appears that by this time the ferocity of the Spanish character had been fully aroused. The cavaliers attacked and destroyed the Indian towns which they came to, chopped off Indian hands for a whim and burned captives alive because—being in mortal dread—they had told a falsehood. But the Spaniards themselves were in turn brought to suffering and despair. They made their way down the Washita to the Red River and thence by that stream to the Mississippi. The spirit of De Soto failed him. The vision of Peru and Mexico faded from his sight. A fever seized upon him and death ended the scene. In the stillness of night his companions wrapped the dead hero's body in a flag; the priests chanted a requiem; a boat conveyed the burial party out to the middle of the great river and there Ferdinand De Soto found his endless rest.

Thus far adventure and exploration had abounded, but no colonization. At length Philip II. commissioned a Spanish soldier, Pedro Melendez, to conduct an expedition to Florida and to plant therein a colony of not fewer than five hundred persons of whom one hundred should be married men. A company of twenty-five hundred gathered around Melendez, and in July of 1565 the expedition left Spain for Porto Rico.

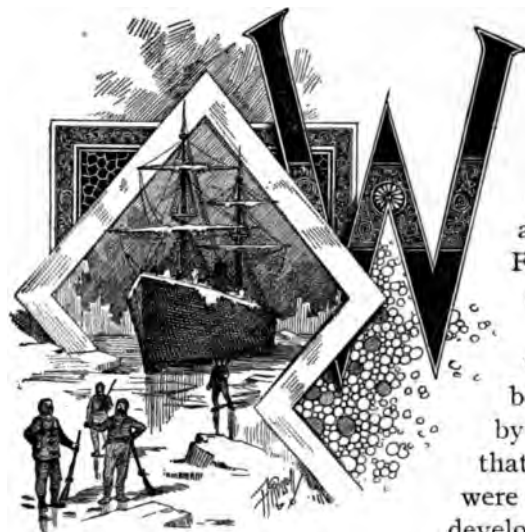
The reader will remember the story of the French Huguenots who had before this time found a lodgment on the river St. Johns, in Florida. This fact was known to the Spanish court, and it was one of the objects of Melendez to exterminate the heretical Frenchmen. On the 28th of August the fleet arrived in sight of Florida. It was St. Augustine's day, and that circumstance gave a name to the colony which was now to be established. The harbor was explored and named in honor of the Saint. Philip II. was proclaimed monarch of North America. A solemn mass was said by the priests, and there, in the sight of forest and sky and sea, were laid the foundation stones of the oldest town planted by Europeans within the present limits of the United States. This was seventeen years before the founding of Santa Fé by Antonio de Espejo and forty-two years before the settlement of Jamestown.



ROUTE OF DE SOTO'S EXPEDITION.

CHAPTER V.

ENGLISH COLONIZATION.



WHILE the colonial enterprises of the Spaniards foreran those of the English by more than half a century in time, the latter people were finally more successful than their rivals in the work of colonizing the new continent. They were also more fortunate—if fortune is a part of history. For they obtained possession, as if by auspicious accident, of the better parts of the New World. They struck the eastern shores of America in the latitude of its broadest and most favorable belt. The circumstances of settlement also, though by no means attended with the pomp and patronage that followed the enterprises of France and Spain, were nevertheless of a kind to foretoken permanence, development and empire.

We shall here note in brief paragraphs the leading features of the colonization of Virginia and Massachusetts. The beginning of the seventeenth century brought in a condition of affairs more favorable than hitherto to the planting of English settlements in North America. At the very beginning of his reign the attention of King James I. was turned to the project of colonizing his American possessions. On the 10th of April, 1606, he issued two great patents to men of his kingdom authorizing them to possess and colonize that portion of North America lying between the 34th and 45th parallels of latitude.

Geographically the great territory thus granted extended from Cape Fear River to Passamaquoddy Bay, and westward to the Pacific. The first patent was directed to certain nobles, gentlemen and merchants residing in London. The corporation was called the London Company and had for its bottom motives colonization and commerce. The second patent was granted to a like body of men which had been organized at Plymouth, in South-western England, and was known as the Plymouth Company. In the division of territory between the two corporations the country between the 34th and 38th parallels was assigned to the London Company, that between the 41st and 45th parallels to the Plymouth Company, and the narrow belt of three degrees between the two to each corporation equally, but under the restriction that no settlement of one party should be made within less than one hundred miles of the nearest settlement of the other.

The leader in organizing the London Company was Bartholomew Gosnold. His principal associates were Edward Wingfield, a rich merchant; Robert Hunt, a clergyman; and Captain John Smith, a man of genius. Others who aided the enterprise were Sir John Popham, Chief-Justice of England; Richard Hakluyt, a historian; and Sir Ferdinand Gorges, a distinguished nobleman.

As to the government of the proposed colony the royal prerogative was carefully guarded. There was to be a Superior Council resident in England. The members of this body were to be chosen by the King and might be removed at his pleasure. An Inferior Council residing in the colony was provided for; but the members of this body were also to be selected by the royal authority and might be removed at the pleasure of the King. All the elements of government were virtually reserved and vested in the monarch. Paternalism was carried to the extreme in one of the restrictions which required that all the property of the colonists should be held in common for the first five years after organization. The emigrants, however, were favored in one particular, and that was in the concession that they should retain in the New World all the personal and social rights and privileges of Englishmen.

VICISSITUDES OF THE PLYMOUTH AND LONDON COMPANIES.

As early as August, 1606, the Plymouth Company sent out their first ship to America. This vessel, however, was captured by a Spanish man-of-war. Later in the year another ship was despatched by the company and spent the winter on the American coast. In the following summer a colony of a hundred persons was gathered and carried safely to the mouth of the River Kennebec, where a settlement was planted under favorable omens. A fort was built and named St. George. For a while affairs went well with the settlers. Later in the season about one-half of the company returned to England; a dreadful winter set in; the storehouse was burned; some of the settlers were starved, some frozen; and with the coming of the next summer the miserable remnant escaped to England.

The efforts of the London Company were attended with greater success. A squadron of three vessels was fitted out under command of Christopher Newport. A colony of a hundred and five members was collected on board and on the 9th of December, 1606, the ship set sail for the New World. The principal men of the company were Winfield, Smith and Newport. The expedition followed the old line of sailing, by way of the Canaries and the West Indies and did not reach the American coast until April of the following year. The leaders of the colony had steered the fleet for Roanoke Island; but a storm prevailed and the ships were borne northward into the Chesapeake Bay.

On the southern shore of this broad water the pilots soon found the mouth of a beautiful river which was named in honor of King James. Proceeding up this stream about fifty miles, Newport chose a peninsula on the northern bank as the site of his settlement. Here the colonists were debarked and the ships were moored by the shore. On the 13th of May, (old style), 1607, were laid at this place the foundations of Jamestown, the oldest English settlement in America. It was within a month of a hundred and ten years after the discovery of the continent by the elder Cabot. So long had it taken in an age of war and doubt and semi-darkness and unprogressive conditions to possess the first square mile



CAPT. JOHN SMITH.

of that vast and virgin New World which had been revealed by the adventurers of Spain and England in the last decade of the fifteenth century. Nearly forty-two years had elapsed since the founding of St. Augustine by the Spaniards and twenty-five years from the planting of Santa Fé by Antonio de Espejo.

In this way did the London Company anticipate its rival in establishing an American plantation. For several years the Plymouth Company made little progress. Meanwhile personal genius contributed not a little to the prospects of England in America. Captain John Smith, who had shown himself to be the leading spirit of the Virginia settlement, had been wounded by an accident and had returned in 1609 to England. No discouragement could daunt the spirit of such a man, and on recovering his health he formed a partnership with four merchants of London with a view to engaging in the fur trade and the work of colonization within the limits of the grant made three years previously to the Plymouth Company.

Two ships were accordingly equipped under command of Captain Smith. The summer of 1614 he spent on the lower coast of Maine, carrying on a profitable trade with the Indians. The crews were well satisfied with their gains and with the profitable pleasures of fishing. Captain Smith, however, engaged his energies in the work of exploration. He traced the whole coast from the Penobscot to Cape Cod and drew a map of the country which is still extant and is a marvel of accuracy and careful work. In this map the name of NEW ENGLAND was written as the title of the country—a name which Prince Charles confirmed and which history has well preserved for posterity.

STORY OF THE ENGLISH PURITANS.

At this juncture we touch the story of the English Puritans. This body of religionists had suffered much in England and many had exiled themselves into Holland. Though not subject to further persecutions they were nevertheless ill at ease in the land of their banishment. They were Englishmen; the unfamiliar tongue of the Dutch grated harshly on their ears, and they pined for some other land where they might be secure from molestation and found for themselves a new State in the wilderness.

With a view to promoting this vague project John Carver and Robert Cushman were despatched from Leyden to England to act as commissioners for the Puritans before the King and his ministers. The agents of the London Company and the Council of Plymouth gave some encouragement to the petitioners, but the King and the ministry, especially Lord Bacon, set their faces against all measures which might seem to favor heretics. The most that King James would do was to give an informal promise that he would *let the Puritans alone in America*.

Such was the poor report which Carver and Cushman were able to bear back to Holland. But the exiles were not easily put from their purpose. They resolved of their own motion to seek a new home in the wilds of America. With the King's permission or without it they would go and plant a new State in the western wilderness. They accordingly, by sacrifice and contribution, provided two vessels, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*, for their voyage across the Atlantic. The *Speedwell* was to carry the emigrants from Leyden to Southampton where they were to be joined by the *Mayflower* with another company from London.

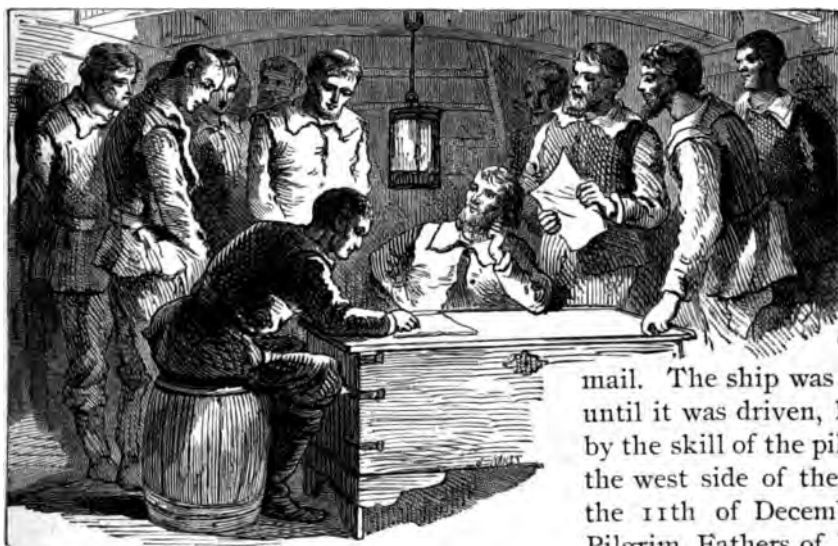
The Puritan congregation in Leyden followed the emigrants to the shore. There under the open heaven their pastor, John Robinson, gave them a parting address and benediction. Both vessels with the Pilgrims on board came safely to Southampton, where the expedition was reorganized. On the 5th of August the two ships put to sea; but the *Speedwell* was

found to be unfit for the voyage and was obliged to put back to Plymouth. The more zealous of the emigrants collected on board the *Mayflower*, and on the 6th of September the first colony of New England, numbering a hundred and two souls saw the shores of Old England grow dim and sink behind the sea.

The *Mayflower* had a stormy voyage of sixty-three days' duration. The vessel was carried out of its course and the first land sighted was the bleak Cape Cod. On the 9th of November the ship came to anchor in Cape Cod Bay ; a meeting was held on board and a compact adopted for the government of the colony. The emigrants declared their loyalty to the English crown and covenanted to live together in peace and harmony, conceding equal rights to all and obeying just laws made for the common good. The compact was signed by all and John Carver was chosen governor of the colony.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

For some days the *Mayflower* lay at anchor while the boats were repaired and other preparations made for debarkation. Miles Standish, the great soldier of the company, went



SIGNING THE COMPACT.

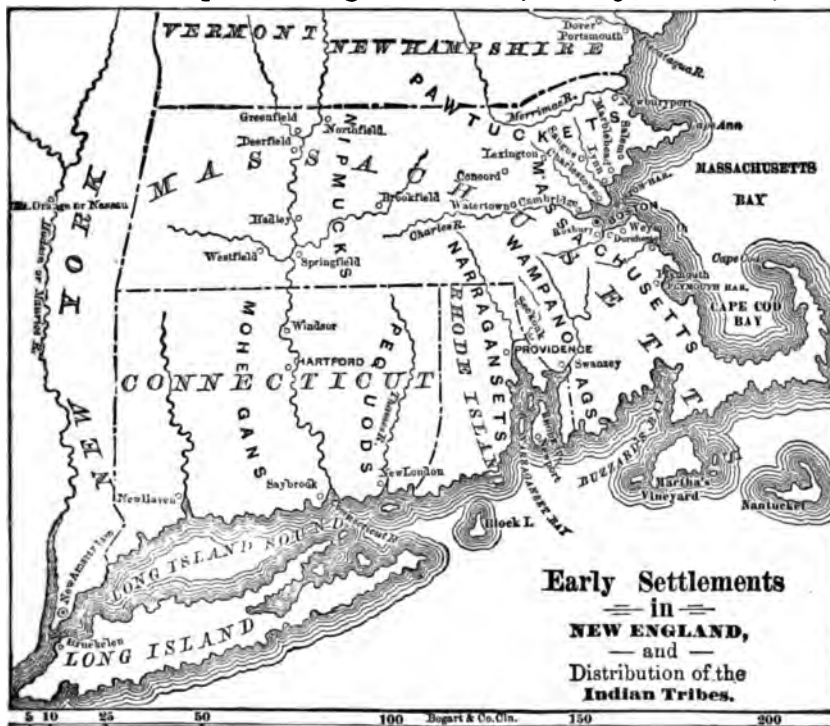
ashore with a few of the braver of the colonists and made explorations through the dreary country, but found nothing of value or interest. Storms of snow and sleet beat upon the company until their clothes were converted into coats-of-

mail. The ship was steered around the coast until it was driven, half by accident and half by the skill of the pilot, into the safe haven on the west side of the bay. Here, on Monday, the 11th of December (old style), 1620, the Pilgrim Fathers of New England landed on Plymouth Rock.

Before the Puritans was desolation ; behind them a stormy sea. It was midwinter. The sleet and snow blew upon them in alternate tempests. The houseless immigrants fell a-dying of hunger, cold and despair. A few days were spent in explorations along the coast ; a site was chosen near the first landing ; trees were felled and the snowdrifts cleared away. On the 9th of January, 1621, the heroic toilers began to build New Plymouth. Each man took on himself the work of making his own house ; but the ravages of disease grew daily worse. Strong arms fell powerless ; lung fevers and consumption wasted every family. At one time only seven men were able to work on the sheds which were building for shelter from the rigors of winter, while their provisions were so completely exhausted that starvation was only avoided by the doling out of a few kernels of corn to the famishing women and children. To such a desperate extremity were they reduced for a while that five kernels of the little store of corn that was between them and fatal famine was the allowance three times a day for each member. If an early spring had not come with its sunshine and bird-song and gladness the colony must have perished to a man. Such were the privations and griefs of that memorable event by which New England began to be.

We are thus at the close of the first quarter of the seventeenth century enabled to view the general situation on the eastern shores of our continent. The French had obtained a footing in Nova Scotia and on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The English had colonized the country of Massachusetts Bay. The Dutch had established themselves on Manhattan Island and in detached settlements along the Hudson and the Delaware. In the country of the Chesapeake the colony of Jamestown was so well founded as to remove all doubt of its permanency. In Florida the Spaniards had succeeded in planting at St. Augustine and several other places successful and promising settlements. It was clear to the discerning eye of reason and prophecy that the white race had fixed itself along the western shores of the Atlantic in situations which were to become the centres of a civilization to which the New World had hitherto been a stranger. We may now properly note in a few paragraphs the spread and development of the European colonies on our shores.

One of the earliest of these was the colony of CONNECTICUT. The history of the settlement of this province begins with the year 1630. In that year the Council of Plymouth,



which had in the meantime superseded the Plymouth Company, made a grant of American territory to the Earl of Warwick. In the following year the claim was assigned by Warwick to Lord Say-and-Seal, Lord Brooke, John Hampden and others. Before this company was able to avail itself of the grant some of the Dutch settlers from Manhattan reached the Connecticut river and built on the after site of Hartford a rude fortress which they called the House of Good Hope.

Hearing of this intrusion the people of the Plymouth colony, who claimed the valley of the Connecticut, sent out a force to expel their rivals. The English of New Plymouth indeed carried their territorial claim westward indefinitely, extending the same beyond the Connecticut and the Hudson and covering the Dutch settlements of New Netherland. The English expedition from Plymouth entered the Connecticut river, passed the House of Good Hope, defied the Dutch and about seven miles up the stream built a block-house which they called Windsor.

Not satisfied with this occupation, the people of Boston, in 1635, sent out a colony of sixty persons to occupy the Connecticut valley. Settlements were made by these at Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield. In the same year John Winthrop, Jr., arrived in New England bearing from the proprietaries of the western colony a commission to fortify the

mouth of the Connecticut and to expel the Dutch from that region. A fort was built at the entrance to the river which was the founding of Saybrook, so named in honor of the proprietaries Lord Say and Lord Brooke. These noblemen, in accordance with their grant, had chosen the country of the Connecticut as the scene of their colonization. In this manner the most important river of New England was brought under the control of the Puri-



ROGER WILLIAMS AT THE COUNCIL OF CANONICS.

tans. The colony of Connecticut was established and a new vantage gained for the further spread of settlements.

ROGER WILLIAMS, THE LIBERAL RELIGIONIST.

The founding of RHODE ISLAND was the work of the celebrated Roger Williams, a young minister of

Salem village, north of Massachusetts Bay.

No man in the history of New England deserves a brighter or more enduring fame, not more for what he did in the founding of a successful colony than for the exertion of his influence with Indians whose friendship he had won, by which he several times saved the whites from massacre. His sense of justice was very like that which distinguished

Penn and it was this character that endeared him to the Indians. The Narragansetts and Pequods were hereditary enemies, but through the persuasion of Williams they became reconciled and likewise made a treaty of friendship with the English. But this compact which seemed propitious of perpetual peace soon became a source of danger, for being relieved of their hereditary foes, the Narragansetts, the Pequods, whose hatred for the English was irreconcilable, violated their treaty and perpetrated several outrages which, however, were speedily avenged by the militia. Finding themselves unequal to the English, the Pequods sought an alliance with the Narragansetts and Mohegans, whom they persuaded to join them in an extermination of the whites. The situation thus became critical in the extreme and the purpose of the alliance was only defeated through the efforts of Williams, who, first notifying Sir Henry Vane, Governor of Massachusetts, of the peril, went alone to the camp of the Narragansetts and in the tent of Canonicus he found that chief in council with several notable Pequods. For two days he pleaded with Canonicus to withdraw from the alliance and stand steadfast to his vows of peace with the whites, and at length had the intense satisfaction of receiving that chief's promise to renounce his murderous purpose. Being thus bereft of their allies the Pequods were easily vanquished by the English militia, who attacking them suddenly, burned their fort and destroyed all but seven of their warriors.

The principles of social and political organization, as well as of religious belief, which Williams adopted were the most liberal and tolerant which had been proclaimed among men since the beginning of the modern era. He assumed that the conscience of the individual could not be bound by the magistrate or the civil government; that the government had to do only with the collection of taxes, the restraint of law-breakers, the punishment of crime and the protection of all in the enjoyment of equal rights.

Such utterances as these, however, could not be borne by the narrow-minded religiousists who had colonized New England. So long had the oppressive forces of society and the abuses of ecclesiasticism borne upon the Puritans that against the dictates of their better natures they had become as wickedly and perniciously intolerant as were the persecutors from whom they had escaped in England and Holland. Roger Williams was arraigned for his doctrines and expelled from Plymouth colony. His teachings were declared to be heretical, destructive of the interests of society and inimical to the best interests of men. He was driven away in the dead of winter, and was obliged for fourteen weeks to save himself from the snows and inclemency of the season by sleeping in hollow trees and subsisting on parched corn, acorns and roots. He went among the Indians whose rights he had defended, and was entertained by Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoags, at his cabin at Pokanoket; also by Canonicus, king of the Narragansetts.

The exile at last made his way to the bank of the Blackstone river, near Narragansett Bay, where with the opening of spring he planted a field and built the first rude house in the village of Seekonk. It was soon found, however, that he was still within the territory of Plymouth colony. Meanwhile five companions from Salem and Boston had joined him in his banishment, and with these he left his house and crossing to the west side of the bay purchased a new tract of land from Canonicus. Here, in June of 1636, he and his followers laid out the city of Providence, and thus became the fathers of Rhode Island.

Already a settlement had been effected in the territory of NEW HAMPSHIRE. In 1622 the country between the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, reaching from the sea to the St. Lawrence, was granted by the Council of Plymouth to Sir Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason. The proprietaries made haste to secure their rights by planting a colony. In the spring of 1623 two small companies of emigrants were sent out by Mason and Gorges to

hold their province. Already a score of years previously New Hampshire had been visited by Martin Pring; and the adventurous Captain Smith, in 1614, had explored and mapped the coast.

After the settlement at Plymouth the plantations on the Merrimac were the oldest in all New England. The progress of the colony, however, was slow. The first villages were no more than fishing stations. After six years the proprietaries divided their dominion between them, Gorges taking the northern and Mason the southern portion of the province. The minister, John Wheelwright, came into New Hampshire and purchased the rights of the natives to the territory occupied by Mason's colony. A second patent was issued to the proprietary, and the name of the province was changed from Laconia to New Hampshire.

In the meantime the same kind of expansion was taking place from the parent colony in Virginia. As early as 1621 William Clayborne, a resolute English surveyor, was sent out by the London Company to make a map of the country of the Chesapeake. The territory of Virginia had by the terms of the second charter been extended on the north to the forty-first parallel of latitude. This included the present States of Maryland and Delaware and a great part of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. The ambitions of the London Company were inflamed with the possession of so vast and beautiful a territory, and they put forth laudable efforts to explore and occupy it before it should be sought and seized by rival colonists.



ROGER WILLIAMS AMONG THE INDIANS.

Clayborne was himself a member of the Council for Virginia, and was Secretary of State in that colony. In 1631 he was sent out as a royal commissioner to discover the sources of the Chesapeake, to establish a trade with the Indians and exercise the right of governor over his companions and any settlement that he might form. His enterprise was attended with success. He first planted a trading post on Kent Island and another at the head of the bay in the vicinity of Havre de Grace. The rivers that fall into the Chesapeake were explored and traffic established with the natives. It seemed for the time that the territory of Virginia was about to be extended to the borders of New Netherland.

RIVALRY BETWEEN CATHOLICS AND PROTESTANTS.

In the meantime, however, other historical forces had been set in operation by which the intended character of the central American colonies was permanently changed. The religious struggles and persecutions which since the beginning of the Reformation had been prevalent in the Old World became the efficient causes of the planting of a new

colony on the north of Virginia, and the limitation of her territories in that direction. The personal agent through whose instrumentality this work was to be accomplished was Sir George Calvert, of Yorkshire. This distinguished nobleman whose name is indissolubly associated with the colonial history of the United States was educated at Oxford. He had devoted much time to travel and study. He was an ardent and consistent Catholic, a friend of humanity, honored with knighthood and a member of the Irish peerage, with the title of Lord Baltimore.

In Protestant England the tables had been turned by the Reformed party on the Catholics, and the latter suffered not a little through the malevolence and injustice of the former. The dominant Church of England persecuted both the Catholics and the dissenting Protestants, following them with hatred and violence even to foreign lands. It was this condition of affairs that first suggested to Lord Baltimore the planting of a Catholic



SIR GEO. CALVERT (LORD BALTIMORE).

colony in Newfoundland. He secured from King James a patent for the southern part of the island and there, in 1623, established a refuge for the distressed people of his faith.

In such a situation, however, no colony could thrive. The country was cheerless and desolate. Profitable industry was impossible. Only the fishing interest invited to enterprise and trade. Besides, the ships of France hovered around the coasts and captured the English fishing-boats. Lord Baltimore became convinced that his countrymen must be removed to a more favorable situation, and in selecting, his attention was turned to the genial country of the Chesapeake. In 1629 he went in person to Virginia and was favorably received by the Assembly. That body, however, in offering him citizenship required an oath to which no honest Catholic could subscribe. Sir George pleaded for toleration; but the Assembly would not yield and Lord Baltimore was obliged to turn away.

In the meantime the London Company had been dissolved and the King of England had recovered whatever rights and privileges he had formerly conceded to that corporation. It was therefore within his power to re-grant the vast territory north of the River Potomac, which by the terms of the second charter had been conceded to Virginia. When the Assembly refused toleration to Baltimore, he turned from that body and appealed to the King for a charter for himself and his colony. King Charles I. heard the petition with favor and the charter was drawn and received the royal signature. The Virginians, by their intolerance had saved their religion and lost a province.

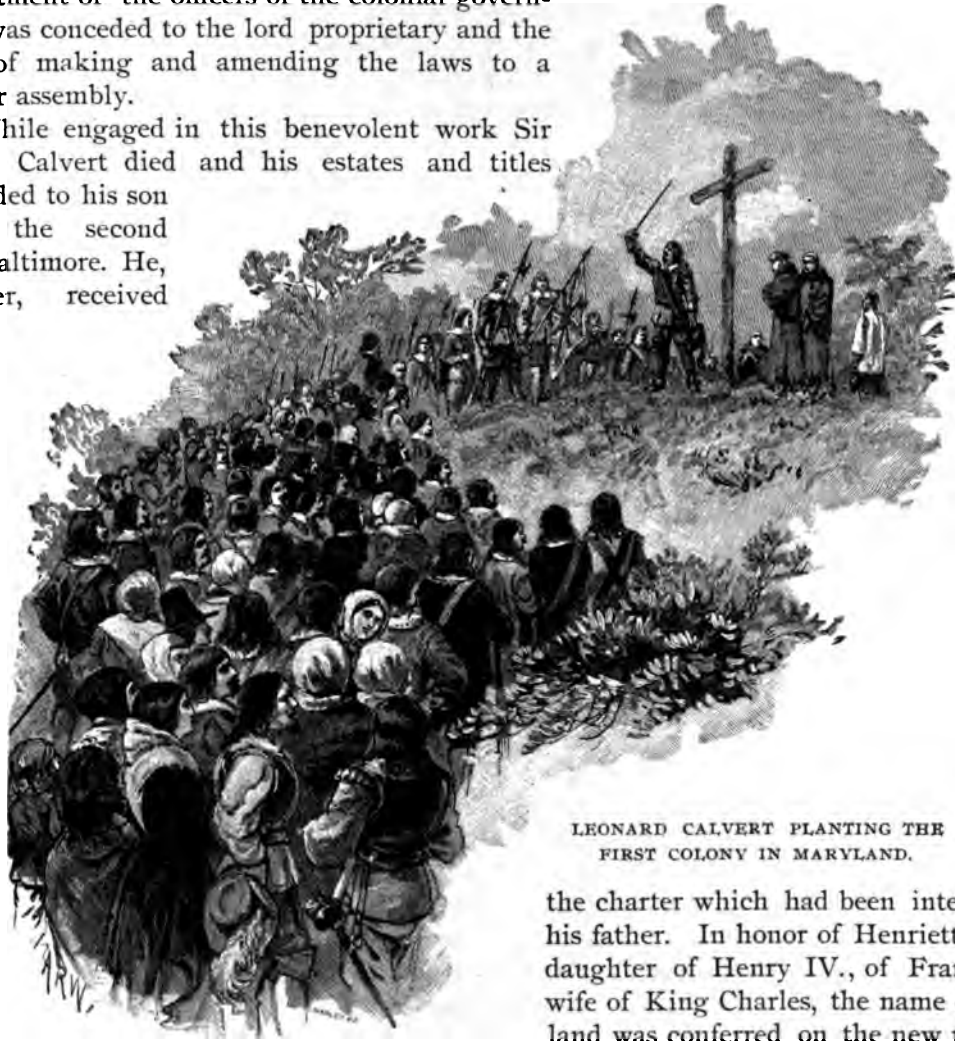
SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND UNDER A CODE OF LIBERAL LAWS.

The territory granted to Sir George Calvert was ample. It extended, after the phraseology of the times, from ocean to ocean. The boundary on the north was the 40th parallel. On the west the limit was to be a line drawn due south from the 40th parallel to the westernmost fountain of the Potomac. That river was to constitute the southern bound-

dary. A glance at the map will show that the original grant included the present States of Maryland and Delaware, besides a large part of Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

On the whole the charter issued to Sir George Calvert was the most liberal of any which the English kings had thus far granted to their subjects. Christianity was declared to be the religion of the State, but no preference was given to sect or creed. The lives and property of the colonists were put under the careful protection of English law. Free trade was declared as the policy of the province, and arbitrary taxation was forbidden. The appointment of the officers of the colonial government was conceded to the lord proprietary and the right of making and amending the laws to a popular assembly.

While engaged in this benevolent work Sir George Calvert died and his estates and titles descended to his son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore. He, however, received



LEONARD CALVERT PLANTING THE
FIRST COLONY IN MARYLAND.

the charter which had been intended for his father. In honor of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV., of France, and wife of King Charles, the name of Maryland was conferred on the new province.

Its independence was guaranteed by the royal constitution and it only remained for Sir Cecil to carry out his father's purposes of planting a free State in the New World. Some time, however, was consumed in gathering a colony and it was not until 1633 that a company of two hundred persons was collected for the voyage. Lord Baltimore had by this time changed his mind with respect to conducting the enterprise in person. Instead of accompanying his colony he appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, to act as deputy governor, and sent him forth to plant the new American State.

It was in March of 1634 that the Catholic immigrants arrived at Old Point Comfort.

Calvert bore a letter from the King charging Governor Harvey, of Virginia, to receive the new comers with courtesy and favor. The governor was obliged to obey; but the Virginians were inflamed with jealousy at the success of an enterprise which they could but perceive would deprive them of the profitable fur trade of the upper Chesapeake.

Sailing up the bay, Leonard Calvert and his colony entered the Potomac. After some explorations they selected the country at the mouth of the St. Mary's as the site of their settlement. Here the colonists took possession of a half-abandoned Indian town, purchased the surrounding territory, set up a cross as the sign of Catholic occupation and gave the name of St. Mary's to this the oldest colony of Maryland. It was thus that by strange vicissitude a company of Catholic immigrants was established in the midst of Protestant dissenters on the American coast. While the Huguenots had been driven into exile by the persecutions of the Mother Church and had sought refuge in New France, the very same kind of proscription and religious vindictiveness thrust forth from Protestant England the Catholic fathers of Maryland.

We may now glance at the work of colonization in the country south of Virginia. The year 1630 witnessed the first effort to plant a settlement in the region below the territorial limits of the London Company. In that year the territory between the 30th and 36th parallels of latitude was granted by the King to Sir Robert Heath. This nobleman, however, did not succeed in organizing a colony. His successor, Lord Maltravers, was equally unsuccessful. The patent continued in force for thirty-three years and was then revoked by the royal authority. Almost the only historical result of the issuance of Sir Robert's charter was the preservation of the name of Carolina which had been given by the Huguenots to the country of their choice.

COLONIZATION OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Before the time of which we speak, namely, in 1622, the coast of the southern territory was explored by Pory, secretary of Virginia. In 1642 a company of Virginian adventurers obtained leave of the Assembly to prosecute discovery on the lower Poanoke and open a trade with the Indians. The first actual settlement made in this region was at the mouth of the river Chowan in the year 1651. Soon afterwards William Clayborne, of Maryland, made explorations along this part of the coast. In 1661 a company of New England Puritans entered the Cape Fear River, purchased lands of the natives and established a colony on Oldtown creek, nearly two hundred miles further south than any other English settlement. In 1663 Lord Clarendon, General Monk—now honored with the title of Duke of Albemarle—and six other noblemen received from King Charles II. a patent for all the country between the 36th parallel and the river St. Johns, in Florida. With this grant the colonial history of NORTH CAROLINA properly begins.

The settlement at the mouth of the river Chowan flourished. William Drummond was chosen governor in 1663 and the settlement was named the Albemarle County Colony. Two years afterwards it was discovered that the settlement was north of the 36th parallel and therefore beyond the limits of the grant to Clarendon and Monk. To remedy this the northern boundary of Carolina was fixed at thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes—a line which has ever since remained as the southern limit of the parent American colony. The Puritan settlement on Cape Fear River was broken up by hostile Indians; but soon afterwards a territory including the site, with thirty-two miles square of the surrounding country, was purchased by certain planters from Barbadoes. A new county called Clarendon county was laid out and Sir John Yeamans was appointed governor. This adventure prospered greatly; new immigrants eagerly sought the settlement, and within a year the colony numbered eight hundred souls.

Several years elapsed, however, before branch settlements were thrown off to the south. It was not until 1670 that a company made its way into the county of SOUTH CAROLINA and there laid the foundations of a new State. The colony was enlisted for the most part from England. The leaders were Joseph West and William Sayle. At the date of the projection of the enterprise there was not a European settlement between Cape Fear River and the St. Johns, in Florida. The country, however, was one of the most attractive of the whole American coast. The new colony came by way of Barbadoes, steered far to the south and reached the mainland near the mouth of the Savannah. The vessels entered the harbor of Port Royal. A hundred and eight years had elapsed since John Ribault, leader of the Huguenots, had set up on the island in this same harbor a rude stone memorial bearing the lilies and emblems of France. But France had failed to colonize the country of her discovery and now the Englishman had come.

FOUNDING OF CHARLESTON AND SETTLEMENT OF NEW JERSEY.

After some explorations through the country the new colony entered the Ashley River, and going on shore laid the foundations of Old Charleston, so named in honor of the English King. Of this, the first settlement of South Carolina, no trace remains except the line of a ditch which was dugged around the ancient fort. But the colony was planted and became the nucleus of another American commonwealth.

Following the order of settlement we next come to the planting of NEW JERSEY. This province has an early history closely linked with that of New Netherland. The first settlement was that of Elizabethtown, in 1664. As early as 1618 a trading station had been fixed at Bergen, west of the Hudson. But forty years passed before a permanent settlement was made at that place. In 1623 Fort Nassau was built, where Timber Creek falls into the Delaware. This was the work of Cornelius May and his companions. But these adventurers abandoned their outpost and returned to New Amsterdam. In 1629 the southern part of New Jersey was granted to two Dutch patrons named Godyn and Blomaert, but the proprietaries made no attempt at settlement.

Many years went by before the colonization of this part of the country was again undertaken. At length, in 1651, Augustine Herman purchased a considerable district in Jersey, including the site of Elizabethtown. Seven years later the grant was enlarged so as to take in the trading-post of Bergen. In 1663 a company of Puritans about to emigrate from Long Island obtained permission of Governor Stuyvesant to occupy the lands on the Raritan, but before their purpose could be carried out the Dutch Government was overthrown by the English.

The English crown had never recognized the claims of the Dutch to the country of



New Amsterdam. It had only been a question of time when violence would be used to extend the claim of England over the whole region occupied by the immigrants from Holland. King Charles II. at length took up the question, and in 1664 made a grant of New Netherland and the whole country as far south as the Delaware to his brother the Duke of York. The latter in turn granted the province between the Hudson and the Delaware to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. These were the same noblemen who were already proprietaries of Carolina. They had adhered to the King's cause during the civil war in England, and had now come into their reward. Their friend Charles II. added to their former possessions a second American province of great extent and promise. As soon as the authority of the Dutch was overthrown in New Netherland—as soon as the English governor Nicolls had taken the place of Peter Stuyvesant—a company of Puritans



made application to the governor for the privilege of occupying the lands on Newark Bay. This was granted; the Indian titles were purchased by the colonists, and in October of 1664 Elizabethtown, the oldest settlement in New Jersey, was founded and named in honor of the Lady Carteret.

The grants made by the English kings at the beginning of our civil history frequently overlapped one another, the second superseding the first or contradicting its provisions. Governor Nicolls of New York had been recognized by the English Crown as in rightful authority over all New Netherland; but in 1665 Philip Carteret, son of Sir George, arrived bearing a commission from the Duke of York as governor of the country between the Hudson and the Delaware. Nicolls resisted this claim, but in vain. Elizabethtown was made the capital of the new province. Other settlements were established on the banks of the Passaic. Newark was soon founded. Hamlets were planted along the shores of the bay from the present site of Jersey City as far as Sandy Hook. It was in honor of Sir George Carteret, who had been governor of the Isle of Jersey, that his American domain was named New Jersey.

WILLIAM PENN IN PENNSYLVANIA.

We are here anticipating the many events of interest with which the colonial history of America in the seventeenth century was filled. We pass over for the present the course of events in the parent colonies to note in order of succession the founding of PENNSYLVANIA. This was effected under the auspices of the great Quaker leader William Penn and the Society of Friends whom he led in their American enterprises. Already this people had planted flourishing settlements in New Jersey and were greatly encouraged with their success; the thought of Penn was to found on the banks of the Delaware a free State, having for its foundation stone the principle of universal brotherhood.

Great had been the sufferings of the Friends in England. Imprisonment, exile and proscription had been their constant portion. Nor did the signs of the times indicate any relaxation in the policy of the English kings towards this innocent and persecuted people.

It was under these conditions that Penn and his leading associates conceived the project of establishing a complete and glorious refuge for the afflicted Quakers in the unoccupied wilds of America. The leader went boldly to King Charles, made his petition, and on the 5th of March, 1681, received a charter bearing the great seal of England and the signature of Charles II. William Penn was made the proprietary of the province which received his name. A vast and virgin territory, bounded east by the Delaware, extending north and south through three degrees of latitude and westward through five degrees of longitude, was granted to him and received the name of Pennsylvania. Only the three counties comprising the present State of Delaware were reserved for the Duke of York.

The grant was complicated. Penn had held against the British government a claim for sixteen thousand pounds sterling, due to his father's estate. This he agreed to relinquish in consideration of the grant and charter. He openly declared his purpose to found in America a free commonwealth without respect to the color, race or religion of the inhabitants. He believed that the natives might be conciliated and won over by a policy of justice and humanity, that a refuge might be established on the Delaware for all oppressed peoples who might choose for conscience' sake to flee from the oppressions and hardships of their homes in Europe.

The event fully justified the policy. In an incredibly short time three shiploads of Quaker emigrants were sent from England to the land of promise. With these came William Markham, agent of the proprietary, and deputy-governor of the new province. Penn exerted himself to be at peace with all. He wrote to the Swedes who had established themselves in the country covered by his charter that they should be in no wise disturbed—that they should keep their homes, make their own laws and fear no oppression. He also

instructed his deputy to make a league of friendship with the Indians and to see that no injustice was done by the colonists to the original owners of the land. He sent a letter directly to the native chiefs, assuring them of his honest purposes and brotherly affection.

In the next place Penn drew up a frame of government—liberal almost to a fault. Instead of endeavoring to extort large profits from his colonial enterprise, he conceded everything to the people, allowing them even to accept or reject the constitution which he had drawn for their government. The world had not hitherto witnessed so great liberality, so complete a confidence on the part of a powerful governor in the righteousness of human nature, the essential integrity of man. The proprietary was not satisfied with the exception of the three Delaware counties from his grant. With extraordinary skill and confidence he approached the Duke of York and induced him to surrender the three counties in favor of the Quaker colony. Thus was the whole country on the western bank of the



WILLIAM PENN.

bay and river, as far north as the 33d degree of latitude, brought under the dominion of William Penn. This work occupied the years 1681-82. In the summer of the latter year Penn made his preparations to depart for America. He wrote a letter of farewell to the Friends in England. A large company of emigrants gathered about him. They took ship and departed for America, and on the 27th of October landed at Newcastle, where their friends who had preceded them were waiting to receive them.

Great was the joy of the new comers and of those who had already established themselves in the colony. The crowd at the landing was composed not only of the Quaker immigrants, but of Swedes and Dutch and English who had come to greet the new governor. He made an address on the day of his landing, renewing his former pledges and exhorting the people to sobriety and honesty. He then ascended the river as far as Chester. He passed the site of Philadelphia, and visited the settlements of the Friends in West New Jersey. He crossed the province to New York and Long Island, speaking word of comfort to the Quakers about Brooklyn, and then returned to the Delaware to assume his duties as chief magistrate.

PENN IN COUNCIL WITH THE INDIANS.

Meanwhile Markham, the deputy governor, had faithfully followed his instructions. Friendly relations had been established with the Indians of the neighboring tribes. This feature of policy Penn dwelt upon as essential to the happiness of the two peoples. The Indian lands were in every case honorably purchased by the Quakers, and many pledges of friendship were exchanged between them and their red brethren of the forest. Soon after the return of Penn from New York a great conference was held with the native chiefs. All the sachems of the Lenni Lenapes and other neighboring tribes were called together on the Delaware. The council was held under the open sky. Penn, accompanied by a few unarmed Friends, clad in the plain garb of the Quakers, came to the appointed spot and took his station under a venerable elm, now leafless, for it was winter. The chieftains also sat unarmed at the council. After the manner of their race they arranged themselves in a semi-circle to hear the address of their great brother. Standing before them with quiet demeanor and speaking by his interpreter, Penn said :—

“My Friends : We have met on the broad pathway of good faith. We are all one flesh and blood. Being brethren, no advantage shall be taken on either side. When disputes arise we will settle them in council. Between us there shall be nothing but openness and love.”

The chiefs replied : “While the rivers run and the sun shines we will live in peace with the children of William Penn.”

This simple compact of brotherly faith was not reduced to writing, but it was ever observed with fidelity by both peoples. No deed of violence or injustice on the part of either is recorded to mar the faithfulness of the red men or the simple-hearted folk with whom they made the treaty. The peace was perpetual. For more than seventy years, while the province remained under the control of the Friends, not a war whoop was heard within the borders of Pennsylvania. The Quaker hat and coat proved to be a better defence for the wearer than coat-of-mail and musket.

The rapid growth of the colony made a legislative Assembly necessary to the general welfare. In December of 1682 a general convention of the colonists was held at Chester. The work of the body occupied but three days. At the close of the session Penn delivered an address to the Assembly and then hastened to visit Lord Baltimore, with whom he had an important conference relative to the boundaries between the two provinces. After a

month's absence he returned to Chester and gave his attention to the selection and mapping of a site for a capital. The neck of land between the Schuylkill and the Delaware was chosen and purchased of the Swedes. The forest as yet covered these lands, and the chestnut, the walnut and the ash furnished the names for the streets of the city that was to be. In 1683 the work of founding was begun. The lines of the streets were first indicated by blazing the forest trees. As for name, Penn chose PHILADELPHIA—City of Brotherly Love.

THE RAPID BUILDING OF THE QUAKER CAPITAL.

Never before had such success attended the planting of a town in America. It came as if by magic. Within a month the General Assembly was able to meet at the new capital. The work of legislation was now begun in earnest and a Charter of Liberties was framed in which the powers and prerogatives of the government were defined. The commonwealth was made a representative democracy. The leading officers were the governor, an advisory council consisting of a limited number of members chosen for three years and a larger popular assembly to be elected annually. The proprietary conceded everything to the people; but the power of vetoing objectionable acts of the council was left in his hands.

Primitive Philadelphia was a marvel of growth and prosperity. In the summer of 1683 there were only three or four houses. The ground-squirrels were still undisturbed in their burrows and the wild deer were seen under the oaks and chestnuts. In 1685 the city contained six hundred houses! Schools had been established, and the printing-press had begun its work. In another year Philadelphia had outgrown New York. Of a certainty the spirit in which the city was founded, the sense of security, the coöperation of all men with their neighbors brought the legitimate fruits of prosperity and astonishing development.

We have now sketched the planting of twelve out of the thirteen original colonies of the United States. It only remains to notice the founding of the thirteenth—GEORGIA. The reader will have noted how far forward we have been carried in following out the history of the colonial establishments. The two Carolinas, Pennsylvania and Georgia belong by the dates of their first planting to the second rather than the first period in our history; but the unity of the work is best preserved by classifying them with the rest.

As in the case of the Quaker State the colony of Georgia was the product of a benevolent impulse. The English philanthropist James Oglethorpe, struck with compassion at the miserable condition of the English poor conceived the design of forming for them an asylum in America. The chief abuse to which the poor of England were subjected was imprisonment for debt. Such was the law of the realm. Thousands of English laborers becoming indebted to the rich were annually arrested and thrown into jail. Their families were generally left to misery and starvation. This crime against humanity became so common and so terrible that a cry of the oppressed at last reached Parliament. In 1728 James Oglethorpe was appointed at his own request to look into the condition of the English poor and to report measures of relief. He performed his duty in a manner so creditable that the debtor jails were opened and the poor victims of poverty set free to return to their families.



The condition, however, of the classes thus liberated was pitiable in the extreme. The emancipated prisoners were disheartened and disgraced. It was with the purpose of furnishing a refuge and an asylum for this class of sufferers that Oglethorpe appealed to King George II. for the privilege of granting a colony in America. The petition was fortunately not made in vain. On the 9th of June, 1732, a royal charter was issued, by which the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers and westward to the Pacific was granted to a corporation for twenty-one years to be held in trust for the poor. In honor of the King, the new province was called Georgia.

SAVANNAH FOUNDED AS AN ASYLUM FOR THE POOR.

The character of the founder was such as to attract sympathy and confidence to his enterprise. Oglethorpe was a loyalist by birth and an Oxford man by education. He was a high-churchman, a cavalier, a soldier, a member of Parliament. In his personal character



JAMES OGLETHORPE.

he was benevolent, generous, sympathetic, brave as John Smith, chivalrous as De Soto. With his accustomed magnanimity he undertook in person the leadership of the first colony to be planted on the Savannah.

During the summer and autumn Oglethorpe collected a colony of a hundred and twenty persons. The emigrant ships left England in November and reached Charleston in January of 1733. After some explorations the high bluff on which the city of Savannah now stands was selected as the site of the settlement. Here, on the 1st of February, were laid the foundations of the oldest English town south of the Savannah River. Broad streets were laid out, public squares were reserved, and a beautiful village of tents and board houses soon appeared among the pine trees as the capital of a new commonwealth in which men should not be imprisoned for debt.

The settlement flourished and grew. In 1736 a second considerable company of im-

migrants arrived. Part of these were Moravians, a people of deep piety and fervent spirit. First and most zealous among them was the celebrated John Wesley, founder of Methodism. He came not as a politician, not as a minister merely, but as an apostle to the New World. Such was his own thought of his mission. His idea was to spread the gospel, to convert the Indians, and to introduce a new type of religion, characterized by few forms and much emotion. His brother Charles, the poet, was a timid and tender-hearted man, who was chosen by the governor as his secretary. Two years afterwards came the famous George Whitefield, whose robust and daring nature proved equal to the hardships of the wilderness. These men became the evangelists of those new forms of religious faith and practice which were destined after the Revolution to gain so firm a footing and exercise so wide an influence among the American people.

CHAPTER VI.

VIRGINIA.



THE reader will not have forgotten the circumstances of the founding of the oldest American colony on the river James. At the first the settlement was badly managed, but the fortune of the colonists was at length restored by the valor, industry and enterprise of their remarkable leader, Captain John Smith. The other members of the corporation showed little capacity for government; and some of the foremost men were not only incompetent, but dishonest. Under Captain Smith's direction, however, Jamestown soon began to show signs of vitality and progress. The first settlers were afflicted with the diseases peculiar to their situation. Captain Smith adopted such improvements in building and food-supply that the health of the settlers was measurably restored. His own confidence was diffused in those who lacked, and the project of abandoning the settlement was at length given over.

As soon as practicable, Captain Smith entered upon that series of explorations and adventures which in the aggregate has converted his life into a romance. We find him now in the Chesapeake, making a map of that broad and important water, naming its tributaries. Now he is a prisoner among the Indians during the greater part of the winter, and escaping from captivity through the intercession of chief Powhatan's daughter, Pocahontas, who threw herself between the prostrate body of Smith and the uplifted club of the executioner, but wandering back to the settlement only to find the colony wasted away to thirty-eight persons. At the very crisis of distress, however, Captain Newport returned from England with a cargo of supplies and a new company of immigrants.

For two years John Smith was in the ascendant and the colony was shaped in its destinies by his masterly hand. In 1609, however, while sleeping in a boat on the James he was wounded by the explosion of a bag of gunpowder. His flesh was torn in a horrible manner and in his agony he jumped overboard. For some time he lay in the tortures of fever and great suffering from his wound. At length he determined to seek for medical and surgical aid in England. He accordingly delegated his authority to Sir George Percy and in the autumn of 1609 left the scenes of his toils and sufferings never to return.

His loss was soon seriously felt in the colony. The first settlers had been an improvident folk, little disposed to labor and economy. The winter of 1609-10 was known as the starving-time. The settlers were reduced to great want, and in the following spring it was determined to abandon Jamestown and return to England. The embarkation was actually effected; but before the settlers had passed out of the mouth of the James the ships of Lord Delaware came in sight with many additional emigrants and abundant stores. The colonists reluctantly gave up their design and returned to their abandoned houses.

Lord Delaware was succeeded in the government of Virginia by Sir Thomas Dale, and he in turn by Sir Thomas Gates. The latter held office until 1614 when Dale was recalled, and Gates returned to England. In 1617 Samuel Argall was chosen governor and entered upon an administration noted rather for fraud and oppression than for wise and humane policy. For two years he remained in authority, until the discontent of the colonists led to his recall and the appointment of Sir George Yeardley in his stead. It was during his administration that the communistic features of the settlement were done away and a better form of civil management introduced. The territory of the colony was divided into eleven districts, called boroughs, and the governor issued a proclamation to the citizens of each borough to select two of their own number to constitute a legislative assembly. Elections were accordingly held and on the 30th July, 1619, the delegates convened at Jamestown. Here was organized the Virginia House of Burgesses or Colonial Legislature, the first popular assembly held in the New World.

INTRODUCTION OF NEGRO SLAVERY.

The same year was marked by another event which was destined to exercise a vast influence on the future history of the country, and indeed of mankind. This was the introduction of negro slavery into Virginia. The servants of the people of Jamestown had hitherto been persons of English or German descent and their term of service had varied from a few months to many years. Perpetual servitude, or slavery proper, had not thus far been recognized. Nor is it likely that the English colonists would of themselves have instituted the system of slave labor. In the month of August, 1619, a Dutch man-of-war sailed up the James to the colonial establishment and offered by auction twenty Africans as slaves. They were purchased by the wealthier class of planters and reduced to servitude for life. There does not appear to have been at first any proper sense or estimate of the thing done among the colonists. They were for a long time indifferent to the success and continuance of the system. It was nearly a half century from the time of the introduction of negro slavery before it became a well established institution in the English colonies.

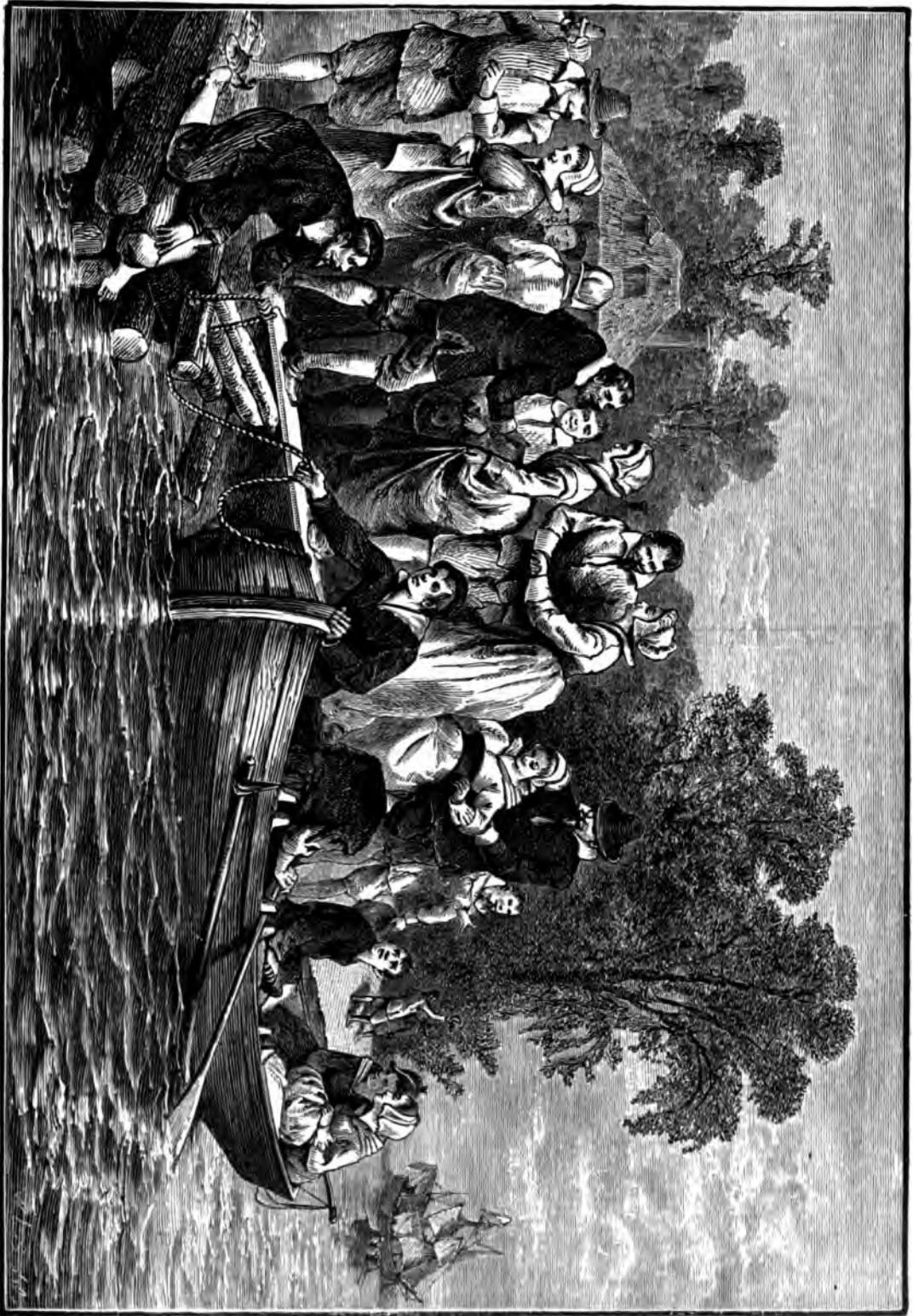


MAP OF THE CHESAPEAKE.

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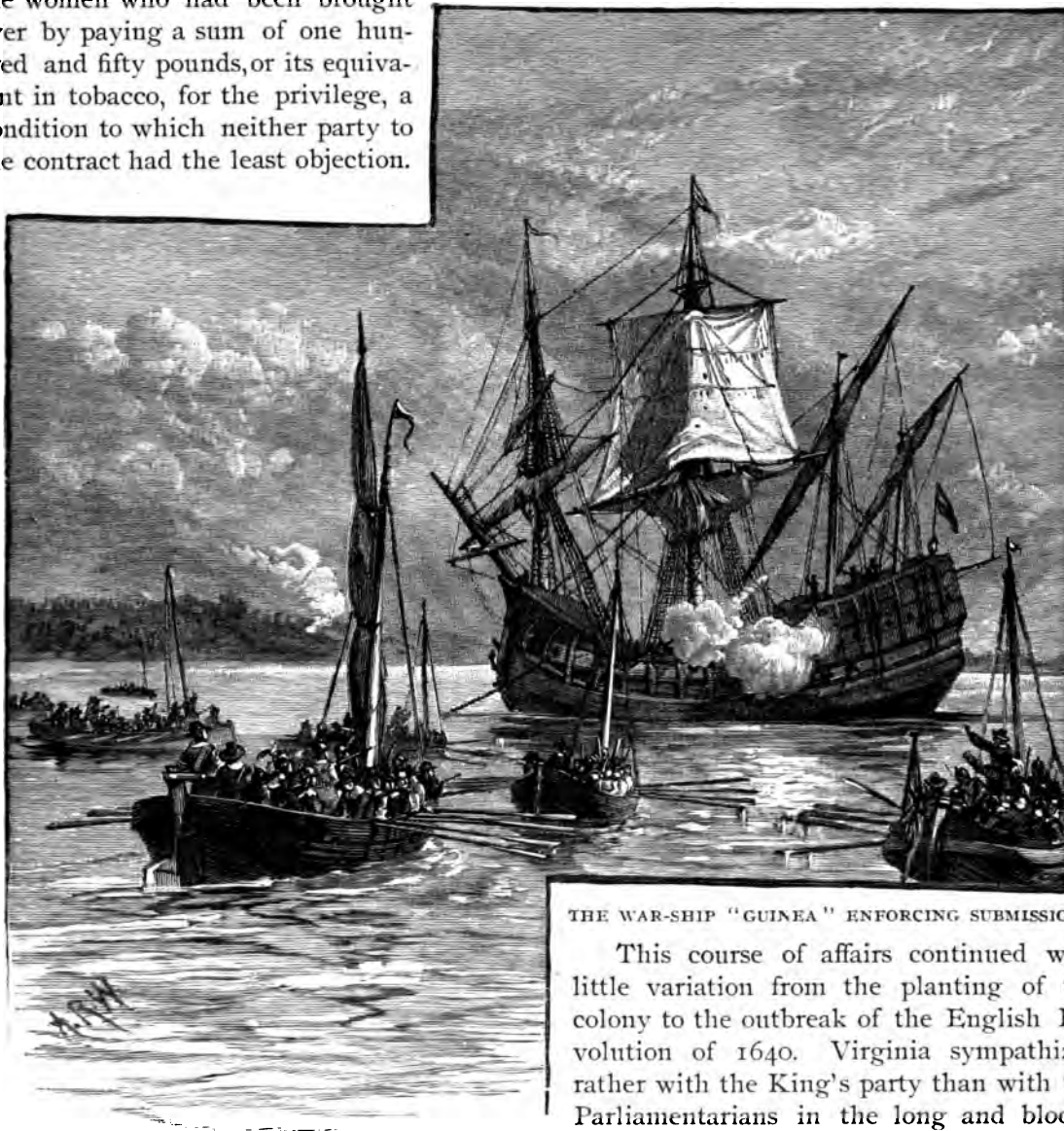
In a few years after the plantation of Jamestown other settlements were made in the James River country as far up as Richmond and beyond. The commonwealth of Virginia grew and expanded by the natural laws of development. New immigrants came from England, Scotland and Ireland. The native-born multiplied rapidly, and the adventurous pioneers put out from older settlements to claim the better land for themselves and their descendants. Civil and political institutions adapted to the needs of the colony were framed by the leaders and the permanence of the new State was assured.

But the one element wanting for the permanent settlement and future prosperity of the colony was—women, without the help of whom man's successes are rarely pronounced. Very few families had emigrated to Virginia and society was in a nebulous state, not to say



IMPORTATION OF WIVES FOR THE JAMESTOWN SETTLERS.

cloudy and forbidding. To remedy this uninviting condition in the fall of 1620 ninety young women were induced to cast their fortunes and seek husbands among the Virginia colonists, and in the following spring sixty other likely and courageous marriageables landed at the new settlement and became wives to the pioneers. The London Company being too poor to bear the expense of passage, the colonists were allowed to select wives from among the women who had been brought over by paying a sum of one hundred and fifty pounds, or its equivalent in tobacco, for the privilege, a condition to which neither party to the contract had the least objection.



THE WAR-SHIP "GUINEA" ENFORCING SUBMISSION.

This course of affairs continued with little variation from the planting of the colony to the outbreak of the English Revolution of 1640. Virginia sympathized rather with the King's party than with the Parliamentarians in the long and bloody struggle of the Civil War. The degree of

removal, however, from the dissensions and conflicts of the mother country saved the Virginians from the more serious consequences of the struggle. In the first year of the rise of the people against the King, Sir William Berkeley came out to Virginia as royal governor, and with the exception of a brief visit to England in 1645 remained in office for ten years. Berkeley was a man of large administrative abilities and notwithstanding the political disturbance in the Old World and the New, Virginia prospered

under his hand. The settlements were rapidly increased in population and importance. The colonial laws were improved in many particulars and were made more conformable to the laws of England. The long existing controversies about the Virginia land titles were amicably settled. Cruel punishments were abolished, and the taxes equalized. Berkeley was, however, a thorough loyalist, and to this extent there was discord between him and the democracy of the colony.

Most of the Virginians, however, adhered to the cause of Charles I. even to the day of his death. When that monarch was beheaded they proclaimed his son Charles II. the rightful ruler of England and of the English colonies in America. Oliver Cromwell, the Lord High Protector of the commonwealth, was offended at this conduct of the Virginians and determined to employ force against them. He ordered the war-ship *Guinea* to be equipped and sent into the Chesapeake to enforce submission; but in the last extreme he showed himself to be just as well as wrathful. Commissioners of the English commonwealth were sent on board the vessel to make overtures of peace to the colonists. They were told to carry the olive branch in one hand and the sword in the other. By this time it had become apparent that the cause of the Stuart kings was hopeless. The people of Virginia perceived that their loyalty to an overthrown House was out of season and they cheerfully entered into negotiations with Cromwell's delegates. In a short time they were brought to acknowledge the supreme authority of Parliament and the Protector was not obliged to employ force against his subjects.

OUTRAGES OF A PROFLIGATE MONARCH, AND BACON'S REBELLION.

With the failure of the English commonwealth Charles II. was restored to the throne of his ancestors. He came to his ancient regal inheritance as one might do to the inheritance of an estate. He chose to consider the British Empire as personal property to be used for the benefit of himself and his courtiers. In order to reward the worthless profligates who thronged his court he began to grant to them large tracts of land in Virginia. True, these lands had been redeemed from the wilderness by the labor of men and were planted with orchards and gardens; but it was no uncommon thing for an American planter to find that his farm which had been cultivated for a quarter of a century had been given away to some dissolute flatterer of the royal household. Great distress was produced by these iniquities in the colony. Finally, however, in 1673, the King set a limit to his own recklessness by giving away the whole State of Virginia! Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington, two ignoble noblemen, received under the great seal a deed by which was granted to them for thirty-one years "all the dominion of land and water called Virginia."

The tyranny and exactions of Sir William Berkeley, governor of the colony, brought at length their legitimate fruits of discontent and insurrection. His administration became odious and the people rose in rebellion. The revolt was coupled with and excused by an Indian war. The Susquehannas became hostile and the pioneers of the border suffering from their incursions took up arms. The insurgent militia found a suitable leader in the young patriot Nathaniel Bacon. The refusal of the governor to support the people in the war with the Indians and to recognize their leader led to a rebellion against the government itself. Lord Berkeley was expelled from Jamestown and driven across the Chesapeake. The civil broil continued for some time with varying fortunes until Bacon fell sick and died. With his death the spirit of the insurrection failed and the militia was easily dispersed. For a while the populace continued rebellious, seeking to find another leader, but none was found, and the royalists soon triumphed. The latter discovered in Robert Beverly a captain who was as able on their side as Bacon had been on the side of the insurgents. The rebel-

lion was quickly suppressed and the popular cause was put under the ban of the government. Sir William Berkeley now loosed his passions on the defeated rebels. Fines and confiscations became the order of the day. The governor fully avenged himself and his partisans for the wrongs which they had suffered. Twenty-two of the patriot leaders were seized and hanged with little form of law and with hardly opportunity to bid their friends farewell. Such was the vindictive retribution of the governor on his enemies that when the easy-going Charles II. heard of what was done he exclaimed, "Why, that old fool in that poor country has killed more men than I did for the murder of my father."

Governor Berkeley's first administration ended with 1651; but after the restoration of Charles II. he was recommissioned and held office until 1676. His abilities were such that notwithstanding his illiberal principles the colonial settlements were considerably extended during the long period of his rule. For the rest he set himself against all manner of progress. He was intolerant to the last degree and inflicted a severe persecution on the Quakers. In one of his reports on the condition of the colony he is quoted as saying: "Thank God, there are no free schools nor printing-presses and I hope there will be none for a hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience and heresy, and sects into the world, and printing has divulged these and other libels."

At the close of Berkeley's administration Lord Culpepper, to whom with Arlington the province had been granted in 1673, received the appointment of governor for life. The new executive arrived in 1680 and took upon himself the duties of his office. His administration, however, was of bad repute. His official conduct was marked with avarice and dishonesty. It was evident that he regarded the governorship as a speculative opportunity. He accordingly adopted the policy of extortion and hard rulings until the mutterings of rebellion were again heard among the settlements.

They who hung upon the favors of Charles II. held by a precarious tenure. In course of time he repented of his rashness in giving away an American colony to worthless favorites. Seeking to amend his error he found in the vices and frauds of Culpepper a sufficient excuse to remove him from office and take away his patent. This was accordingly done and in 1684 Virginia from being a proprietary government, became a Royal province. Lord Howard of Effingham was appointed governor, and he in turn was succeeded by Francis Nicholson. The administration of the latter was signalized by the founding of William and Mary College, so named in honor of the new King and Queen of England. This next to Harvard was the first institution of liberal learning planted in America. Here the boy Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence shall be educated. From these halls in the famous summer of 1776 shall be sent forth young James Monroe, future President of the United States.

During the first half of the eighteenth century Virginia pursued an even course of development. Her population steadily—but not rapidly—increased. Her position as oldest of the little American republics was recognized by her sister colonies. Her men began to be scholars and statesmen. At this epoch her Revolutionary heroes that were to be were born. The Virginian character was developed and matured for the exigencies of both war and peace. In the times of the Inter-colonial conflicts with New France in alliance with the Indians, Virginia suffered less by her position than did the great colonies of the North; but her patriotism never suffered in comparison, and when the premonitory thrills of National Independence shall at length tremble through the land, the call of country shall in no part be heard with profounder sympathy or more ready answer than in the Commonwealth of Virginia.



CHAPTER VII.

MASSACHUSETTS.



PASSING to New England we note with interest the progress of the first Puritan settlement planted by the Pilgrims at Plymouth. At the beginning there was a struggle most sharp for existence. The first winter had wellnigh proved fatal to the whole company who debarked from the *Mayflower*. Hope, however, revived with the spring, and the first bird-song brought welcome to the weary heart of man. Though one-half of the colony had been swept off by disease and exposure the remainder went forward with courageous spirits to the work of destiny. The governor and his wife and son went down to the grave. But the Pilgrims had in them a soul of resolution, and they who survived rose from the snows of winter to plant and build and sing their hymns of thankfulness.

One of the first exigencies of the colony had respect to the disposition of the natives. Captain Miles Standish was sent out with his soldiers to gather information—to see in what manner the Indians would bear themselves in the presence of a European settlement. The army of New England consisted of six men besides the general. Deserted wigwams were found here and there; the smoke of campfires arose in the distance; savages were occasionally seen in the forest. These fled, however, at the approach of the English and Standish marched back unmolested to Plymouth.

It was now the turn of the Indians to make an attempt at intercourse. A month after the adventure of Standish, a Wampanoag sachem named Samoset came into Plymouth, offered his hand and bade the strangers welcome. He could speak a broken English, for he had been with the whites at intervals since the time of the earlier voyages. He gave such account as he might of the number and strength of his people, and told the colonists of a great plague by which a few years before the country had been swept of its inhabitants. He attributed the present feebleness and dispirited condition of the red men to this malady which had destroyed their fathers.

Soon afterwards another Indian named Squanto, who had been carried abroad by Hunt in 1614 and had learned to speak English, came to Plymouth and confirmed what Samoset had said. Then with the early spring came Massasoit, the great sachem of the Wampanoags, and with him a treaty was made which remained inviolate for fifty years. The compact was simple, providing that no injury should be done by white men to the Indians or by the Indians to them, and that all offenders and criminals should be given up by either party for punishment according to the laws and usages of the two peoples.

A CHALLENGE BRAVELY MET.

The effect of the treaty was salutary. Nine of the leading tribes entered into like relations with the English, and acknowledged according to the limits of their understandings the sovereignty of the English king. Some of the sachems were suspicious and



SAMOSET WELCOMING THE ENGLISH.

hostile. Standish in one instance was obliged to lead out his soldiers against a refractory chief. Canonicus, king of the Narragansetts, sent to Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows wrapped in the skin of a rattlesnake; but the governor stuffed the skin with powder and balls and sent it back as a significant answer to Canonicus. The latter would not receive it, but sent it on from tribe to tribe until it was finally returned, like an

unaccepted challenge, to the governor.

The first year after the planting of Plymouth was unfruitful and the colonists were brought to the point of starvation. A new company of immigrants without provisions or stores arrived during the season and this circumstance heightened the distress, for all must be fed. The new comers remained over winter with the people of Plymouth, and then crossed to the south side of Boston harbor, where they laid the foundations of Weymouth. But the settlement did not prosper. The Weymouth people, instead of engaging in necessary work, attempted to live by fraudulent trade with the Indians, and when they were about to starve abandoned their settlement and returned to England.



TREATY BETWEEN GOVERNOR CARVER AND MASSASOIT.

The third year, 1623, brought a plentiful harvest, and the people of Plymouth began to have abundance. The Indians brought in the products of the chase and exchanged them

liberally for corn. Meanwhile the main body of pilgrims still tarried at Leyden. John Robinson, their leader, made strenuous efforts to bring his people to America, but the London adventurers who had managed the enterprise refused to furnish money or transportation, and at the end of the fourth year there were only a hundred and eighty persons of the white race in New England.

In 1624 Cape Ann was settled by a company of Puritans from Dorchester, England. They were led by their minister, John White. The place chosen for the colony, however, was found to be unfavorable, and after two years the whole company moved southward to a place called Naumkaeg, where they laid the foundations of Salem. Two years later a second company arrived at the same place, under conduct of John Endicott, who was chosen governor. The colonists obtained a patent from Charles I., and the settlements were incorporated under the name of the governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England. In the same summer two hundred additional immigrants arrived, some of whom settled at Plymouth, while the rest removed to the peninsula on the north side of Boston harbor and laid the foundations of Charlestown. In 1630 about three hundred of the best Puritan families in England came to America under the direction of John Winthrop, who was chosen governor. Though a royalist by birth, he cast in his lot with the Republican party. Himself an Episcopalian, he chose to suffer affliction with the Puritans. Surrounded with affluence and comfort at home, he left all to share the destiny of the persecuted pilgrims in America.

FOUNDING OF BOSTON AND A DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT.

Of the new comers of 1630 a part settled at Salem. Others paused at Charlestown and Watertown. Others founded Roxbury and Dorchester. The governor himself, with a few of the leading families, crossed the harbor to the peninsula called Shawmut and there laid the foundation of Boston, destined to be the capital of the colony and the metropolis of New England.

As in Virginia, so in Massachusetts the civil life of the people tended from the first to Democratic liberty. As early as 1634 a representative form of government was established by the Puritan colonists. This work was accomplished against the strenuous opposition of the ministers. On election day the voters to the number of three or four hundred were called together, and the learned Cotton preached powerfully against the evils of Republicanism. The assembly listened attentively and then went on with the election! To make the reform complete, a ballot-box was substituted for the old method of public voting. The restriction on the right of suffrage, by which only church members were permitted to vote, was the only remaining bar to a truly Democratic government in New England.

The year 1635 was the great year of immigration. Three thousand new colonists arrived. The Puritans abroad had come to see that it was worth while to live in a country where the principles of freedom were spreading with such rapidity. The new immigrants were under the leadership of Hugh Peters and Sir Henry Vane. For a season the settlements around Massachusetts bay were overcrowded. It seemed that there would not be room for the incoming immigrants from Europe. The more adventurous soon began to plunge into the wilderness and to find new places of abode. One little company of twelve families, under leadership of Simon Willard and Peter Bulkeley marched through the woods until they reached some open meadowlands, about sixteen miles distant from Boston, and there laid the foundations of Concord. Later in the same year another branch colony of sixty persons made their way westward to the Connecticut river, and in the following spring founded Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield.

The Puritans brought with them to America religious toleration—for themselves! Strange that they should not have discerned that the thing needed was toleration for others! But the vices of bigotry and narrow-mindedness had been inherited by them from the middle ages and could not be cast out. As a consequence religious dissensions appeared in the colony from the first years of its planting. The mind of this people was deeply concerned with religious questions. To debate issues which were impossible of decision was the food and drink of the fathers and mothers of New England. The conversation of those who built houses was about the abstruse questions of theology. The sermons preached by the ministers had to pass the ordeal of review and criticism. Under such circumstances the more audacious minds tended strongly to a larger religious liberty.

Such persons, however, were under surveillance and ban of the more orthodox, and particularly of the preachers. It was this condition of affairs that led to the expulsion of Roger Williams from Salem.

FOUNDING OF A WOMAN'S REPUBLIC.

The dominant class of Puritans understood religious freedom to mean the privilege of others to have the same religious beliefs and practices as themselves. Most prominent among



A SCOLD GAGGED.

those heretical characters at Boston who were said to be "as bad as Roger Williams or worse," was Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, a woman of great gifts, who had come over in the ship with Sir Henry Vane. Moved by the spirit within her, she claimed the privilege of speaking at the weekly meetings. This was refused by the elders. "Women have no business at these assemblies, and most of them need their tongues bridled at times like common scolds," said they. Hereupon Anne Hutchinson became the champion of her sex, and denounced the ministers for defrauding women of the benefits of the gospel. She called them Pharisees, and was in turn declared by them to be unfit for the society of Christians. She with a large number of friends was banished from Massachusetts—sent forth to live or to die as best they might. The exiles made their way first to the home

of Roger Williams. Miantonomoh, chief of the Narragansetts made them a gift of the beautiful island called Rhode Island, where in March of 1641 they founded a little republic of their own.

While intolerance darkened the Puritan character, many virtues illumined it. It was what an artist might call a *chiaroscuro*, in which on the whole the light shone through the darkness. While the Puritans stooped to the character of persecutors for opinion's sake, they rose in many particulars to the level of philanthropists. In 1636 the general court of the colony appropriated between one and two thousand dollars to found and endow a college. The measure met with popular favor and the enterprise went forward to success. Newtown was selected as the sight for the proposed school. Plymouth and Salem gave gifts to help the enterprise, and the villages in the Connecticut valley sent contributions of corn and wampum. In 1638 John Harvard, a young minister of Charlestown, being about to die, bequeathed his library and nearly five thousand dollars to the institution. To perpetuate the memory of this benefactor, the new school was named Harvard College; and in honor of the place where many of the leading men of Massachusetts had been educated, the name of Newtown was changed to Cambridge.

SETTING UP THE PRINTING PRESS.

The printing-press quickly followed. In 1638 Stephen Daye, an English printer, came to Boston bringing a font of types and in the following year set up his press at Cambridge. His first publication was an almanac calculated for New England and the year 1639. In the next year Thomas Welde and John Eliot—two ministers of Roxbury—and Richard Mather of Dorchester translated the Hebrew Psalms into English verse, and published their rude work in a volume of three hundred pages—the first book printed on this side of the Atlantic.

All the elements of progress followed the Puritans to their American exile. The settlements flourished and multiplied. New England was becoming rapidly populated. Well-nigh fifty towns and villages dotted the face of the country. It was estimated that during the first twenty years from the founding of Plymouth a million dollars were spent in settling and developing the new State. Material prosperity came also. Enterprises of many kinds were rife. Manufactures, commerce and the arts soon sprang up. William Stephens, a shipbuilder who had come with the immigrants of 1629, built and launched an American vessel of four hundred tons burden. Before 1640 two hundred and ninety-eight emigrant ships had anchored in Massachusetts Bay. The census of the year just referred to showed a population for the State of twenty-one thousand two hundred.

Political unity is a notion which has always appealed with great force to a certain type of mind. Segregation, isolation, individuality, localism, appear to such in the nature of chaos and confusion. Very early in the history of the New England settlements the question of uniting them under one civil form began to be agitated. In 1639 and again in 1643 a practical measure was brought forward, first in the Assembly of Massachusetts and afterwards in those of the neighboring colonies looking to the union of all. The act was adopted, by the terms of which Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven were joined in a loose confederacy, called the United Colonies of New England. The chief authority was vested in a General Assembly or Congress composed of two representatives from each colony. These delegates were chosen annually at an election where all the freemen voted by ballot. Since the colonies were under the general authority of the English King, no President was provided for other than the Speaker of the Assembly; and he was without executive authority powers. Each community retained as before its own local government and all subordinate questions of legislation were reserved to the individual members of the union.



THE FIRST PRINTING PRESS
BROUGHT TO AMERICA.

The sentiments of the people of Massachusetts with respect to the English Revolution were very different from those of the people of Virginia. The latter were by their antecedents and habits in sympathy with the King's party, while the people of Massachusetts were for opposite reasons attached to the Republican and Parliamentary cause. The friends of the Puritans had made their way into the English House of Commons, and the peril to the throne was to be feared from those who were in alliance of principle and sentiment with



FIRST CHURCH ERECTED IN HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT, 1638.

the colonists of New England. Throughout the Civil War the American Puritans sustained with voice and sympathy the Revolutionary party. Distance, however, modified the feelings of the people of New England, and when Charles I. was brought to the block they whose fathers had been exiled by *his* father lamented his tragic fate, and preserved the memory of his virtues.

Cromwell understood perfectly the temper and sentiments of the American colonists. He remained from first to last their steadfast friend. We have seen how even in Virginia the over-loyal people of that province found the Protector to be just as well as severe, but the people of New England were his special favorites. To them he was bound by all the ties of political and religious sympathy. For more than ten years, while in many instances his hand rested heavily upon the people of the home country, Cromwell, though he might have been the oppressor, remained the benefactor of the English in America.

PERSECUTION OF THE QUAKERS.

It was in July of 1656 that the first Quakers arrived at Boston. Among these were Ann Austin and Mary Fisher. The introduction of the plague would have occasioned less alarm! Strange does it seem to us, and stranger will it seem to posterity, that such innocent enthusiasts could have been regarded with so great antipathy and dread. The two women were caught and searched for marks of witchcraft. Their trunks were broken open, their books burned by the hangman, and they themselves thrown into prison. After several weeks' confinement they were brought forth and driven beyond the limits of the colony. Others came, and they too were whipped and exiled. As the law against the Quakers was made more cruel and proscriptive, fresh victims rushed forward to brave its terrors. So great was the public alarm that the Assembly of the United Colonies was convened, and Massachusetts was advised to pronounce the penalty of death against the fanatical disturbers of the public peace. In 1659 four persons were arrested, brought to trial, condemned and hanged without mercy. Nor did the fact that one of these was a woman move the hearts of the persecuting judges.



FIRST SCENE OF KING PHILIP'S WAR.

The era of the English commonwealth drew to a close. Charles II., long fugitive from the kingdom of his fathers, was restored to the throne, and on the 27th of July, 1660, the tidings of the great things done in England reached Boston. It was now the turn of

those who had overthrown the monarchy and trampled on the residue to fly for their lives. In the same ship that brought intelligence of the Restoration came Edward Whalley and William Goffe, two of the judges who had passed sentence of death on Charles I. Governor Endicott received them with courtesy, but the agents of the British Government followed in hot pursuit.

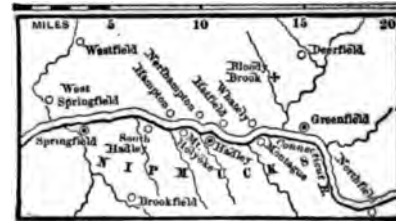
The two regicides, or king-killers, as they were called, were aided by the people of Boston to escape from the officers. They made their way to New Haven, where for many weeks they lay concealed, no one, not even the Indians, accepting the reward which was offered for their apprehension. At last the exiles reached the village of Hadley, in the valley of the Connecticut, and there found seclusion and rest during the remainder of their lives. When, in the time of King Philip's war, the village of Hadley was attacked by the savages, the venerable Goffe came forth from his hiding place, rallied the flying people and directed the defence. Then he went back to his covert and was seen no more.

The outbreak in 1664 of a war between England and Holland furnished opportunity to Charles II. to carry out one of his cherished plans. This was the recovery or reclamation of the American colonies from their proprietary, chartered and semi-independent condition to a complete subordination to the English crown. Circumstances favored the project, for it became necessary at the beginning of the war to send a British fleet to America in order to reduce the Dutch colonies on the Hudson. This armament might easily be used by the King in the work of reestablishing absolutism over those other colonies on our coast which owed their political existence to charters and guarantees given by former kings.

In furtherance of his purpose Charles II., or his minister, sent four royal commissioners to America to sit in judgment upon all questions of dispute and intercolonial controversy that might arise among the colonies. It was thought that the acceptance by the Americans of such a court of arbitration would lead to a recognition of the royal authority in other and purely political matters. The commissioners came to Boston in July of 1664, but the Americans were quick to discover the meaning of the thing done, and gave the royal judges so cold a reception that they were soon glad to leave the country.



THIRD SCENE OF KING PHILIP'S WAR.



SECOND SCENE OF KING PHILIP'S WAR.

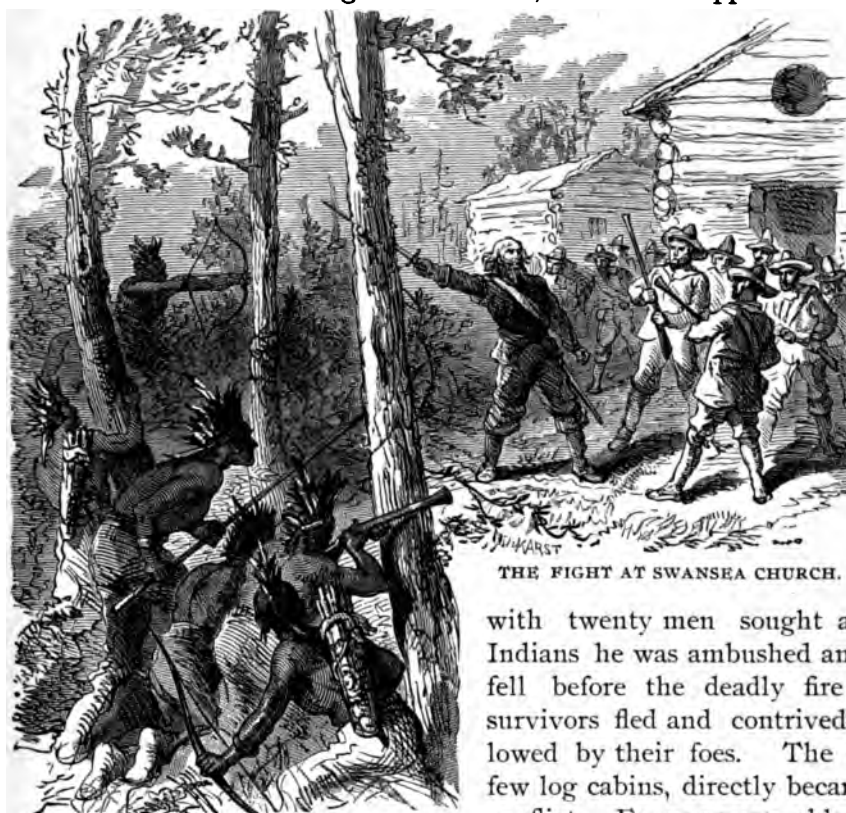
KING PHILIP'S WAR, AND SIEGE OF BROOKFIELD.

The time came when the expansion of the white settlements and the reluctance of the natives to retire from their ancient hunting grounds brought on a conflict of great severity between the two peoples. The Wampanoag Indians found an able leader in their great chieftain, King Philip, and for awhile they held their own against the superior discipline, steadier courage and better weapons of the English.

All the causes leading to King Philip's war are not fully known, many having been assigned, but it may be reasonably inferred from that chief's actions that it grew out of jealousy at the encroachment of the whites upon his domains. War would have broken out sooner had not the English presented so strong a front and watched with unrelaxed vigilance every movement of the Indians. But Philip was a cunning chief and awaited his opportunity, all the while augmenting his forces and completing his preparations. At

length a friendly Indian, named Sausaman, who was known to be on intimate terms with both his own people and the whites, was murdered by three hostiles who were soon after apprehended and being brought to trial before a jury of six whites and as many Indians were convicted and shot. This incident precipitated the war which had for some years been expected. Philip now assembled his warriors and took up a position in a woods near where the city of Bristol now stands. Here the Indians rendezvoused for a while, sending their women and children to Narragansett, until their full force was mustered and ready for the conflict.

The 24th of June, 1675, the whites spent in fasting and prayers that the threatened horror of an Indian war might be averted, but their supplications were in vain. Three



THE FIGHT AT SWANSEA CHURCH.

days later while the people were returning from church in Swansea they were fired on by Indians and three were killed, which murderous outrage was followed by the burning of barns and cabins. Several villages were attacked in turn by the savages until soon all of Plymouth colony was in terror. The Nipmuck Indians went on the war-path in August and when Captain Hutchinson

with twenty men sought a conference with the Indians he was ambushed and eight of his company fell before the deadly fire of the savages. The survivors fled and contrived to reach Brookfield followed by their foes. The village, consisting of a few log cabins, directly became the scene of a terrible conflict. Every person able to handle a gun flew to

the defence of their homes and prepared to resist the several hundred Indians that rushed down upon them with ear-splitting yells, bearing musket or bow in one hand and a blazing torch in the other. In a very short time every cabin was on fire save the single one in which Captain Hutchinson and his men had taken refuge, who from their place of protection poured forth a deadly hail upon their assailants. The desperate fight went on with small advantage to the Indians several of whom fell before the well directed aim of the besieged. Efforts were made by the whites to break through the line of savages, or to send out messengers for relief, but it was not until after the failure of several desperate attempts that one brave fellow succeeded in passing the lines under cover of darkness and rushed off to Providence to spread the alarm. For three days and nights the combat continued, during which time the dry clap-board roof of the cabin was fired several times by arrows wrapped in blazing flax, but as often brave men broke a hole through the



roof and put out the flames. On the evening of the third day, however, the Indians seized a wagon and loading it with wood and flax set the whole on fire and then by means of poles pushed it against the building. At the moment when their destruction appeared inevitable the sinking hearts of the whites were lifted into joy by a down-pouring rain that extinguished the flames and so saturated everything that all further danger from fire was removed. No sooner were they relieved from this terrible extremity than the shouts of friends were heard rushing to the rescue. Major Willard, of Boston, with fifty men, had been apprised of the siege at Brookfield, and with all possible haste rushed to the succor of the whites, whose ammunition and energies were by this time almost completely spent. So impetuous was his charge upon the Indians that they were dispersed like chaff, and at the close of the engagement the bodies of eighty savages were found dead around the log-cabin.

The struggle continued for nearly a year and was attended with great loss of life and destruction of property. But at last the Indians were subdued and Philip himself hunted down and killed near his old home at Mount Hope, in Rhode Island.

After the rejection of the royal judges the project of Charles II. to regain absolute control of the American colonies was allowed to slumber for several years. With the accession of James II., however, the old charter of Massachusetts was formally revoked. All the colonies between Nova Scotia and Narragansett Bay were consolidated into one and Joseph Dudley received the appointment of governor-general, or president. New England was not able for the time openly to resist this great encroachment on popular liberty. The colonial assembly was dissolved by its own act and the members returned sullenly to their homes.



DESTRUCTION OF SCHENECTADY.

In the following winter Governor Dudley was superseded by Sir Edmond Andros, who had been appointed royal governor of New England. Under his administration Massachusetts and her sister colonies lost their liberties. All sympathy ceased between the government and the people. Andros and his rule became extremely odious and when the news of the expulsion of King James from the throne of England was borne to Boston the royal governor was visited with a like fate at the hands of the American colonists. On the 18th of April, 1689, the citizens of Boston and Charlestown rose in open rebellion. Andros and his minions perceived at a glance that resistance was in vain and they attempted to escape. The people, however, seized them and cast them into prison. The insurrection spread rapidly throughout New England and in less than a month every colony had regained its former liberties.

The European wars of the seventeenth century in which England, France and Holland

were involved, spread into the respective colonies of those States in America. That conflict which was ended by the treaty of Ryswick involved the English possessions in New England and those of France in Nova Scotia in a serious war which continued for nearly eight years. The results, however, were indecisive, and in 1697, when the treaty was concluded between the parent kingdoms, the boundary lines of their respective colonies in America were established as before.

DREADFUL EPISODES OF THE INDIAN WARS.

But some of the bloody incidents which preceded this settlement and the causes leading thereto, may be here profitably recounted: The wars between France and England in Europe naturally involved the colonists of America. It was these quarrels which led primarily to what is known in history as King William's War, from 1689 to 1697; Queen Anne's War, 1702 to 1713; King George's War, 1744 to 1748, and the French and Indian War, 1754 to 1763. While there were occasional pauses in the strifes they were no more than truces and the four wars may properly be merged into one continual struggle wherein the question to be decided was which should rule in the New World, the English or the French. This contention led to the most savagely horrible massacres and thrilling episodes that deface the annals of American history.

In all the early wars the Indians took an important part, and were almost invariably allies of the French. Had it not been for these barbarous foes the English would have gained an impregnable ascendancy in the New World fifty years before they did; but having such wily and numerous enemies to contend with, whose tactics were stealth, treachery, surprise, assassination and merciless slaughter, the English settlers were harassed until life became a constant battle, and horror was in hourly expectation. The school-house, where children gathered; the church, where families repaired to worship; the field, where the farmer bent to his toil, were all too familiar scenes of pitiless murder. To guard against attacks of the Indians houses were protected by palisades, while every village had its blockhouse of refuge, and men went everywhere armed in preparation for the fray. But however great the precaution human life was exceedingly cheap and every day had its bloody incident.

In the depth of the winter of 1690 a party of French and Indians suddenly descended upon the town of Schenectady and under the cover of darkness fell upon the unsuspecting inhabitants. Bursting in the doors of the houses men, women and children were dragged from their beds and tomahawked and the dwellings were then fired. A few of the miserable people contrived to escape, and half clothed made their way through a driving snow-storm to Albany, where a half dozen died from the exposure two days later.

In June of the preceding year ten squaws secured lodging in the five garrisoned houses of Dover, New Hampshire. The people gave them hospitable entertainment, having no suspicion of the treachery intended. During the night the squaws, two in each house, stealthily arose and unbarred the doors to admit the waiting savages without. A terrible massacre of people followed, from which only three persons managed to escape.

Some years later (1697) a band of Indians attacked Haverhill, Massachusetts, murdered twenty of the people and carried off as many more women and children, to whom was reserved a fate no less terrible than death. At the time of the attack a Mr. Dustin was working in a field near by and realizing the import of the excitement seized his gun and leaping on his horse rode with all speed to the succor of his wife and seven

children. By extraordinary bravery he held the Indians at bay and covered the escape of six of his children, but his wife was ill in bed at the time and she, with an infant and nurse, was made captive. While the Indians were hurrying their prisoners away Mrs. Dustin's babe began to cry, whereupon a murderous chief seized it by the feet and dashed out its brains.

The miserable captives were forced to march at the top of their speed and as fast any became exhausted they were despatched with a tomahawk and their bodies left to mark the route over which they had travelled to their death.



MR. DUSTIN COVERING THE RETREAT OF HIS CHILDREN.

HEROISM OF MRS. DUSTIN.

Mrs. Dustin, though weak from her illness, was a woman of astounding courage and power of will. She and the nurse held out when the strength of many who appeared much stronger failed and survived the march of one hundred fifty miles. Learning that the captives were to be tortured when the destination was reached she resolved to take

the most desperate chances to effect her escape. By this time the Indians had divided up into small parties, the prisoners being distributed so that to guard them required little watchfulness. Mrs. Dustin, her nurse and an English boy of fourteen years were given in charge of ten Indian warriors and a squaw. Thinking that their captives were about exhausted by their weary march the Indians relaxed their vigilance, and being tired themselves one night they all fell asleep, each probably thinking that the other was on guard. Seeing the opportunity for which she had been watching Mrs. Dustin aroused the nurse and boy and each seizing a tomahawk they despatched the sleeping Indians. But not fully satisfied yet with this brave effort that gave her liberty she glutted her vengeance by scalping her victims, and with these bloody trophies she proceeded to a river bank where she found a canoe and in it returned to Haverhill, where she was soon afterwards reunited with her family.

In 1704 the same horrifying scenes that had desolated Haverhill were reënacted at Deerfield, Massachusetts. While the snow lay four feet deep nearly four hundred French and



MRS. DUSTIN KILLING HER CAPTORS.

Indians surrounded the place and watching their opportunity they rushed on the place while the sentinels were off their guard and made a holocaust of the inhabitants. Forty-seven bodies of the murdered men, women and children were consumed in the flames, while one hundred and twelve captives were taken and made to travel fifty miles through the deep snow. One by one they fell ex-

hausted on the way and their brains dashed out with the ever ready tomahawk. One of the captives, daughter of a minister named Williams, saw her mother thus cruelly slaughtered, yet being herself saved from a like fate by the favors of a chief she lived to become the Indian's wife, and in after years visited her friends in Deerfield. In the meantime she had embraced the Catholic faith, but so charmed was she with the wild life of the savage that she refused to abandon her dusky husband and continued faithful to him until her death.

THE SALEM WITCHCRAFT DELUSION.

We here come to another strange paragraph in the history of primitive New England. The reader of historical narrative is obliged at intervals to turn from the stately and showy progress of public affairs to consider the occult movement of the human mind, to note its diseases and delusions and to mark with astonishment the most inexplicable crimes which it is capable of committing in the days of its delirium. Only two hundred years ago the fathers of New England were subject to that strange intellectual and moral malady which resulted in the atrocities of the Salem witchcraft. The delusion broke out in that part of Salem village afterwards called Danvers, and was traceable to the animosity of the minister, Samuel Parris against George Burroughs, a former pastor of the church at that place. By Parris the charge of witchcraft was brought against several of the friends

and adherents of Burroughs and these were imprisoned and brought to trial before Stoughton, deputy-governor of the colony. Parris was in correspondence with the leading ministers of Boston and he procured the assistance of the celebrated Cotton Mather in the prosecution of the alleged witches. Mather undertook the cause and was the person chiefly responsible for the horrors and crimes that ensued. Twenty innocent people, including several women, were condemned and put to death. Fifty-five others were tortured into the confession of abominable falsehoods. A hundred and fifty others lay in prison awaiting their fate. Still two hundred others were accused or suspected, and ruin seemed to impend over New England.

Fortunately for mankind, it is in the nature of such atrocities—diseased as they are—to cure themselves by reaction. At the very crisis of this delusion the reaction came and the people arose and righted themselves. Notwithstanding the vociferous clamor and denunciation of Mather, the witch tribunals were overthrown. The General Assembly convened in October and the atrocious court which Governor Phipps had appointed to sit at Salem was at once dismissed. The spell was dissolved. The thralldom of the public mind was broken. Reason shook off the terrors that oppressed it. The prison doors were opened and the poor victims of superstition, malice and delusion went forth free.

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION, OR QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.

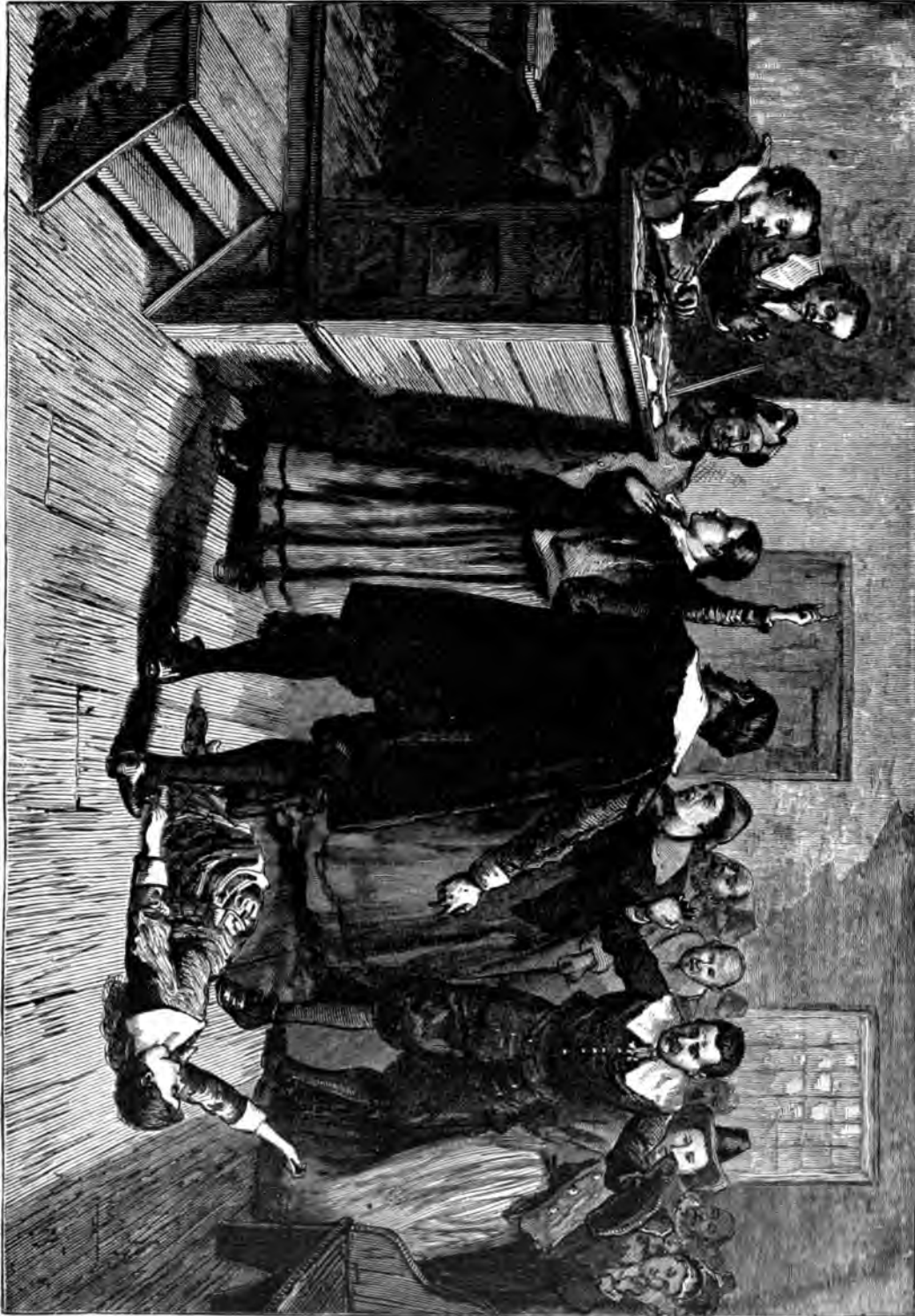
When the War of the Spanish Succession, so called, came on in Europe, the American colonies as dependencies of the foreign Powers became involved in the conflicts. The French settlements of Canada and the English settlements of Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York went to war because the parent kingdoms were trying to determine with the sword who should occupy the Spanish throne. The Canadian Jesuits instigated the Indians to take up arms against the English colonies. During the year 1703-04, havoc and desolation were spread by the savages along the exposed frontiers of Connecticut and New York.



THE OLD WITCH HOUSE—SCENE OF EXAMINATIONS AT SALEM.

As the war dragged on, a great expedition was planned by Massachusetts for the capture of Port Royal from the French. In 1707 a fleet bearing a thousand soldiers sailed from Boston harbor for Acadia. But Baron Castin who commanded the French garrison of Port Royal conducted the defence with so much skill and courage that the English were obliged to abandon the undertaking. Massachusetts gained nothing but discouragement and debt from her costly and disastrous expedition; but she resolved to prosecute the war with redoubled energy.

A second armament was fitted out in 1710. A squadron of thirty-six vessels bearing four regiments of troops sailed from Boston to Port Royal and began a siege. The garrison was now weak and the French commander had not the ability of his predecessor. The supplies ran out; famine came and after a feeble defence of eleven days the place surrendered at discretion. All of Nova Scotia passed by this conquest to the English crown.



TRIAL OF A WITCH AT SALEM.

The flag of Great Britain was raised over the conquered fortress and the name of Port Royal gave place to Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne.

With the English Revolution of 1688 and the accession of William and Mary, the people of Massachusetts hoped for a betterment of their political condition. The event, however, did not justify the expectation. It was found that King William was not disposed to relinquish the claims of his predecessors in the matter of a royal government over the colonies. This policy of sending out governors from England was continued; but the officers who were sent were received with dislike by the people, and there was constant variance of interests and views between the citizens and the governors. Phipps and his administration were heartily disliked. Governor Shute was equally unpopular. Burnett, who succeeded him and Belcher afterward, were only tolerated because they could not be shaken off.

In such a condition of affairs the people either find or make a way according to their wishes. The opposition to the royal governors in New England took the form of a controversy about their salaries. The General Assembly of Massachusetts insisted that the governor and his councillors should be paid in proportion to the importance of their several offices and for actual service only; but the royal commissioners gave to each officer a fixed salary which was frequently out of all proportion to the rank and services of the recipient. After many years of antagonism the difficulty was adjusted with a compromise in which the advantage was wholly on the side of the people.

We thus reach the middle of the eighteenth century, at which time the common interests of the American colonies began to prevail over their prejudices and to bring them into closer union. The circumstances which led to a community of action and finally to the establishment of a common government will be narrated hereafter. The danger which came to all by the French and Indian War was the most powerful single cause which overcame the spirit of localism and tended to the union of all the colonies. For the present—as in the case of Virginia and Massachusetts—we take up the progress of the Dutch settlements on the Hudson and follow their history down to the time when it merged in the common history of the country.



CHAPTER VIII.

NEW NETHERLAND.



OR ten years after the establishment of the first settlers on Manhattan Island New Amsterdam was governed by Directors appointed by the Dutch East India Company. In 1623 a new colony of thirty families arrived at Manhattan. The immigrants, called Walloons, were Dutch Protestant refugees from Flanders. They were of the same religious party with the Huguenots of France and the Puritans of England. They came to America to find repose from the persecutions to which they were subjected in their own country. Cornelius May was the leader of these immigrants, the greater number of whom settled with their friends at New Amsterdam; but the captain with a party of fifty sailed down the coast of New Jersey, and entered and explored the bay of Delaware. On his return in the following year he was made first governor of New Netherland.

The official duties of May were such as belonged to the superintendent of a trading post. In 1625 he was succeeded in office by William Verhulst. Meanwhile other Dutch ships came to Manhattan Island bringing herds of cattle, sheep and swine. In January of 1626 Peter Minuit, of Wesel, was regularly appointed by the Dutch West India Company as governor of New Netherland. The population increased, and the census of 1628 showed two hundred and seventy persons in the colony. The industry of the first settlers was directed to the fur trade. The Dutch boats and ships were found in all the bays, inlets and rivers between Rhode Island and the Delaware.

As the colony increased in strength and influence, the West India Company prepared a new scheme of colonization. The corporation, in the year 1629, prepared what was called a Charter of Privileges, under which a class of proprietors called Patrons were authorized to possess and colonize the country. Each patron might select for himself anywhere in New Netherland a tract of land not more than sixteen miles in length and of a breadth to be determined by the location. In accordance with the provisions of the charter, five estates were soon established. Three of them lying contiguous, embraced a district of twenty-four miles in the valley of the Hudson above and below Fort Orange. The fourth was laid out by Michael de Pauw on Staten Island, and the fifth and most important included the southern half of the present State of Delaware. At the beginning, success seemed to attend the plans of the West India Company as developed in the Charter of Privileges.

It was at this date that the Swedes first began to plant settlements on the American coast. Four of the European nations—Spain, France, England and Holland—had now succeeded in establishing permanent colonies. Sweden was the fifth, and the great King Gustavus Adolphus was the patron of the enterprise. It was in 1626 that a company of Swedish merchants was organized to promote the emigration of a colony to

America. For this purpose a large capital was subscribed, to which the King himself contributed four hundred thousand dollars. But before the purpose of the company could be carried out, Gustavus Adolphus was killed in battle, and the work was transmitted to the great Swedish minister Oxenstiern. The charter which the late King had given to the company was renewed, and after four years of preparation the enterprise was brought to a successful issue.

CONFLICT BETWEEN THE SWEDES AND THE DUTCH.

The first company of Swedes and Finns left the harbor of Stockholm in 1637. In the following February the colony reached the Delaware Bay in safety. To the men of the North the new country rose like a vision of beauty. They called Cape Henlopen the Point of Paradise. The lands on the west side of the bay and up the river as far as the Falls of Trenton were honorably purchased of the Indians, and in honor of their native land the name of New Sweden was given to the territory.

The reader will easily perceive the prior claims which other nations had upon the country thus occupied by the Swedish colony. The first to assert such a claim was the Dutch governor of New Netherland. The Swedes were notified that they were intruders and that they must submit to the authority of Holland. Hostilities broke out, and in 1651 the Swedish colony was overpowered and reduced to subjection by the Dutch.

The names of several of the early governors of New Netherland are known to history; but the greatest of them all was the soldierly Peter Stuyvesant, who came out under commission of the West India Company in the year 1647. His influence over the colonists of Manhattan Island and the Hudson valley was salutary, and the Dutch State began to improve under his administration; but the progress was slow. As late as the middle of the century the better parts of Manhattan Island were still uncultivated, though divided among the Dutch farmers. Central Park was as yet a forest of oaks and chestnuts.

We have already spoken of the conquest of the little State of New Sweden, on the Delaware. Stuyvesant regarded this province as a part of his dominions. Not much was to be feared from the Swedes, for they were only as one to ten of the Dutch. There was a disposition among the former, however, to establish and maintain independence. They built a fort on the present site of Newcastle; but this the Swedes, under Governor Rising, soon captured. The circumstances gave excuse to Stuyvesant for the invasion of New Sweden, and in 1655 he marched at the head of six hundred soldiers against that colony. Resistance on the part of the Swedes was useless. Their fortified places were taken, and the flag of Holland raised instead of that of Sweden.

The disposition of Charles II. to reclaim the chartered and proprietary governments of the American colonies has already been mentioned. In March of 1664 that monarch issued to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, two extensive patents for American territory.



PETER STUYVESANT.

The first grant included the country from the Kennebec to the St. Croix river, and the second embraced the whole region between the Connecticut and the Delaware. Without regard to the claims and settlements made by the Dutch West India Company under the authority of Holland, and with no respect for the wishes and interests of the Dutch people who had populated Manhattan and the valley of the Hudson, and disregarding even the voice of his own Parliament, Charles II. in a single hour despoiled a sister kingdom of a well-earned province in America.

THE DUTCH CONQUERED BY THE ENGLISH.

This done the English king gave orders for taking possession of the country granted to his brother the Duke. James himself made haste to secure the benefits and honors which were conceded by the new patents. An armament was sent out under command of Richard Nicolls, whom the Duke of York had named as governor. On his arrival at New Amsterdam with his squadron Nicolls called on Governor Stuyvesant to surrender. The latter was justly angered at the arrogance of this demand, and tried to induce his Dutch councillors to declare war. He stormed at them and at the indifferent people of Manhattan with all the passion of a patriot, but they would not fight.

Doubtless the Dutch were not wanting in courage, but their property interests were imperilled, and they chose to save their homes at the expense of patriotism. On the 8th of September, 1664, New Amsterdam surrendered and New Netherland ceased to exist. The English flag was raised over the fort and the name of New York was substituted for that of New Amsterdam and as the name of the whole province. Two weeks afterwards Fort Orange on the Hudson was surrendered and received the name of Albany, in commemoration of the Duke's second title. The Swedish and Dutch settlements on the Delaware also capitulated. England triumphed over her rivals. The conquest was complete. The supremacy of Great Britain in central North America was henceforth firmly established. From the northeastern extremity of Maine to the southern limits of Georgia every mile of the American coast acknowledged the dominion of the English flag and crown.

With this revolution of 1664 we come to a succession of English governors who held rule in New York to the close of the century. Of these Richard Nicolls remained in office for three years, when he was superseded by Lord Lovelace. The latter left behind him a reputation for tyranny and arbitrary rule. He held authority until 1673, when the counter-revolution of that year occurred. The Dutch, having gone to war with England, sent out a squadron to reclaim their American colony. For the nonce the expedition was successful. New York was seized and the supremacy of Holland was for a brief season restored in the country between the Connecticut and the Maryland. In the following year Charles II. was obliged by Parliament to make a treaty of peace with the Dutch government. This was done, but the treaty contained a clause for the restoration of all conquests made during the war. New York thus reverted to England and the rights of the Duke of York, whatever they were, were again confirmed over the province. The Duke, however, took the precaution to make his authority doubly secure by obtaining from his brother, the King, a new patent confirmatory of the former charter.

Reference has already been made to the arrival of Sir Edmond Andros as governor of New York. Andros attempted to establish his authority, but the people resisted him to the verge of insurrection. He hoped to obtain recognition as governor of all the middle colonies; but in this expectation, however, he was resisted and frustrated in the same manner as he was destined to be by the people of New England. There was a constant broil

between the governor and his council on the one side and the popular assembly and citizens on the other. This state of civil commotion extended to 1683, when Andros was superseded by Thomas Dongan, a Catholic.

Under the administration of Dongan the form of the government was changed. The assembly of the people was recognized as a part of the colonial management. All freeholders were granted the right of suffrage; trial by jury was established, and it was agreed that taxes should not henceforth be levied upon the people except by consent of the General Assembly. It was provided that soldiers should not be quartered on the people; that marital law should not exist; that men should not be distressed or persecuted on account of their religious beliefs. All the rights and privileges which the people of Massachusetts and Virginia had gained under their charters and by the plan of self-government were carefully adopted by the law-makers of New York in their early constitution.

TYRANNY OF JAMES II.

In the year after the beginning of Dongan's administration an important treaty was concluded at Albany. In July of that year the governors of New York and Virginia were met in convention by the sachems of the Iroquois, and the terms of a lasting peace were agreed upon. At this time the reign of Charles II., of bad fame, drew to a close. In 1685 he died, and his brother, the Duke of York, was raised to the throne with the title of James II. For more than twenty years now past a reaction against popular liberty and against Protestantism had been going in England under the patronage and leadership of the crown. In his later years Charles II. had virtually gone back to the Mother Church. King James who succeeded him was in heart and fact a Catholic. The old principles of government which had been avowed and practised by the House of Tudor were again assumed as axioms of the administration and were acted upon as far as the temper of the English nation would permit.

In this reactionary policy James II. was bolder than his brother. He applied his theory not only to the home administration of England, but everywhere. As soon as he was seated on the throne he proceeded to violate the pledges which he had made to his American subjects. He became the open antagonist of the very government which had been established under his own lieutenants in New York. He abrogated the popular legislature of that province. He imposed an odious tax by arbitrary decree on the people. He forbade printing presses, and restored all the old abuses under which the colony had labored and groaned in times past.

Late in 1686 Sir Edmond Andros received his commission as governor of all New England. As his deputy he sent to New York and New Jersey Francis Nicholson to act in his name and by his authority. Governor Dongan was superseded, and New York was converted into a dependency of New England. Reference has already been made to the revolution of 1688 which expelled James II. from the kingdom and carried away with him all of his dependents and partisans. The government of Andros in New England and of his lieutenant, Nicholson, in New York was immediately overthrown. The governor and his adherents were glad to escape from the country, hearing behind them as they fled the huzzas with which the Americans hailed the accession of William of Orange to the throne of England.

REBELLION AND PIRACY.

In New York the expulsion of Nicholson from the government had been effected by an actual rebellion of the people. The leader of the insurrection was a certain Jacob Leisler and his son-in-law named Milborne. These led the revolt with a high hand and though

their action could hardly be condemned by the crown since it was a part of the revolution in England, yet the deputy-governor, Colonel Sloughter, who was sent out by William and Mary, was induced by the enemies of Leisler and Milborne to have them arrested, condemned and hanged.

Sloughter's administration began in 1691; but he was soon superseded by Benjamin Fletcher, who held office until the invasion of New York by the French under Governor Frontenac, of Canada, in 1696. Two years afterwards came the Earl of Bellomont, an Irish nobleman of excellent character and popular sympathies. His administration, succeeding that of Fletcher, lasted for nearly four years and was the happiest period in the history of the colony. His authority was recognized as far as the river Housatonic. At one time Massachusetts and New Hampshire were under his jurisdiction. The colonies of Rhode Island and Connecticut, however, refused to acknowledge his rule. It was during his administration that the coasts and merchant vessels of the eastern and middle colonies were kept in alarm by the ravages of the famous sea-marauder, Captain William Kidd, the pirate.

Bellomont's administration ended in 1702. He was succeeded by Lord Cornbury, who arrived at New York in May of that year; but his character, manners and policy were wholly different from those of his predecessor. He soon broke with the popular assembly, and each succeeding legislature resisted his authority more and more. Petitions were circulated for his removal from office. The councillors chose their own treasurer, refused to make appropriations, cut down the revenue and vexed the governor with opposition until after six years of turmoil and dissension he was not only compelled to retire from office, but was impoverished and ruined. He was succeeded by Lord Lovelace, who bore a commission from Queen Anne, the new sovereign of England. As for Cornbury, he was seized by the people and imprisoned for debt, until by his father's death he became a peer of England and could no longer be held in confinement.

QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.

New York participated with New England in the events of King William's and Queen Anne's war. The soldiers of the western province joined the army of New England to the number of eighteen hundred in the unsuccessful expedition against Montreal. The united forces of the colonies proceeded as far as South River, east of Lake George. Here the news came that the English fleet which had been expected to cooperate with the American provincials in the reduction of Quebec had been sent to Portugal. The squadron of New England was not sufficiently strong to attempt the capture of the Canadian stronghold, and the troops of New York and New Jersey were obliged to retreat to their own countries. A second time, in 1711, an expedition was sent forward to the borders of Canada. In this instance Sir Hovenden Walker conducted an English squadron up the St. Lawrence, but the sequel showed that he was incompetent for such an enterprise. The American forces meanwhile reached Lake George; but the news of the disaster to Walker's fleet removed all hope of success and the provincials once more returned to their homes.

We have now, as in the case of Massachusetts and Virginia, carried the narrative of events in New York well forward into the eighteenth century. In 1732 Governor Cosby came into office and his administration was marked with a struggle of the people for the freedom of the press. The liberal newspapers of the province held that the acts of the government were subject to review and criticism in the public journals. The aristocratic party denounced such liberty as mere license, dangerous to the established order and likely to sap the foundation of all authority. In one instance an editor named Zenger published

certain hostile criticisms on the policy of the governor and was arrested and imprisoned for so doing. Great excitement ensued; the people became clamorous for the liberation of their champion. Andrew Hamilton, a distinguished lawyer of Philadelphia, was sent for to defend Zenger, who was brought to trial at New York in July of 1735. He was charged with libel against the government; the cause was ably argued and the jury quickly brought in a verdict of acquittal. The aldermen of the city testified their appreciation of Hamilton's services in the cause of liberty by making him a present of an elegant gold box and the people kindled bonfires in their enthusiasm over the victory which they had gained for a free press.

THE NEGRO RIOTS.

The year 1741 was marked by the occurrence of what was called the Negro Plot. At this time negro slavery existed in New York and the slaves constituted a considerable fraction of the population. Several destructive fires occurred, and the belief gained currency that these were the work of incendiaries. For some unknown reason the slaves were first distrusted and then suspected. They became objects of fear and hatred. In this condition of affairs some abandoned women came forward and informed the authorities that the negroes had conspired to burn the city, kill all who opposed them, and set up one of their own number as governor.

Notwithstanding the absurdity of this rumor, the people in their terror were ready to believe it. The reward of freedom was offered to any slave who would reveal the plot. Many witnesses rushed forward, telling foolish and contradictory stories about the conspiracy, and the jails were soon filled with the accused. More than thirty of the miserable creatures, with hardly a form of trial, were convicted and then hanged or burned to death. Others were transported and sold as slaves in foreign lands. No sooner, however, had the excitement passed and the people regained their senses than it came to be doubted whether the whole shocking affair had not been the result of terror and fanaticism. The verdict of aftertimes has been that there was no plot at all.

In the time of King George's war New York was several times invaded by the French and Indians, but these incursions were easily repelled. In the northern part of the State a few villages were abandoned and considerable property in exposed localities destroyed.



QUEEN ANNE.

CHAPTER IX.

MINOR COLONIES AND THE PEQUOD WAR.



WE have already narrated the settlement of the first colonies in Connecticut. With the founding of Saybrook the valley of the most important river of New England was secured for English plantations. Settlers came and a few years sufficed to populate the valley with several enterprising communities. Scarcely, however, had these established themselves in their future homes when the settlers became involved in a war with the Pequods. This broke out in the year 1633. The crew of a trading vessel was ambushed and murdered by the Indians. What provocation the whites had given is not known. An embassy of sachems went to Boston to apologize for the crime and a treaty was patched up, by the terms of which the Pequods acknowledged the sovereignty of the English king and agreed to become civilized, whatever that might mean.

The Narragansetts had already made a similar agreement with the English. It thus happened that the two principal nations of Indians were brought to peace with each other, and the hereditary fear which the Pequods had entertained of the Narragansetts was removed. It appears that the Pequods soon took advantage of the immunity thus gained to break their compact with the English and to begin on the frontier a series of hostilities. Oldham, captain of a trading vessel, was killed by them, and they in turn were pursued and shot down by the Connecticut militia. Hereupon the suppressed rage of the red men burst out in flames, and war began in earnest.

As soon as fighting was the order of the day the Pequods sought to unite the Narragansetts with them for the extermination of the whites. In this serious mischief they were well nigh successful. The conspiracy, however, was defeated by the heroic generosity of Roger Williams, who used his influence with the sachems of the Narragansetts to prevent them from making the alliance, as already and more fully described. The Mohegans were in like manner induced to remain at peace with the whites.

In the spring of 1637 an expedition was organized under the command of Captain Mason, who advanced against the Pequods in their own country. He came upon the principal fort of the tribe, attacked it, set the wigwams on fire and made a holocaust of the village and its wretched inhabitants. Only seven of the warriors are said to have escaped. Six hundred men, women and children perished, nearly all of them being roasted to death in one hideous heap in the flames. The Pequod nation was destroyed. Not a wigwam was spared. The few who were taken prisoners were distributed as servants among the Mohegans and the Narragansetts.

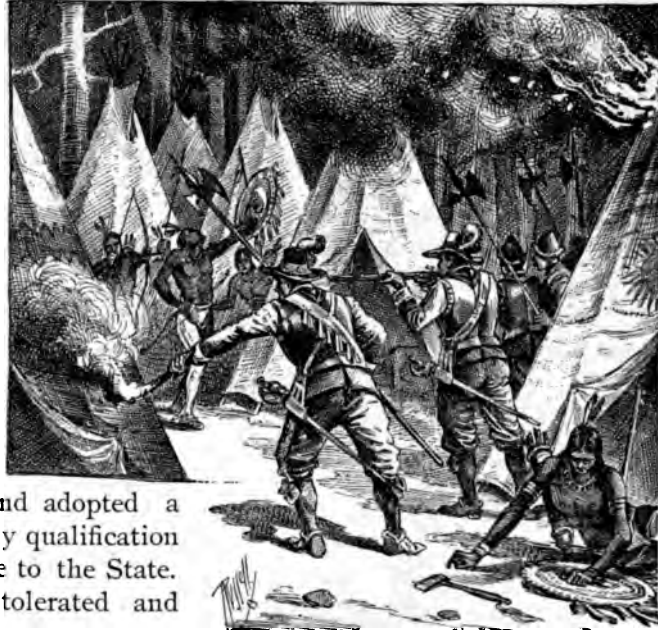


SCENE OF THE PEQUOD WAR.

THE BIBLE AS THE CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE.

Just after the close of the Pequod war New Haven was founded by a company of colonists from Boston. In 1639 the settlers held a convention *in a barn*, and adopted the Bible as the constitution of the State! The government was called the "House of Wisdom," and seven of the leading men were called the Seven Pillars. Theophilus Eaton, first and greatest of the Pillars, was chosen governor for twenty years consecutively. About this time the first settlements were planted on the opposite shores of Long Island Sound, where pleasant villages appeared before the middle of the century.

The civil organization of Connecticut may be dated from 1639. Delegates from the three principal towns came together at Hartford and adopted a simple constitution, in which the only qualification of citizenship was an oath of allegiance to the State. All religious opinions were alike tolerated and respected.



CAPT. MASON FIRING THE INDIAN VILLAGE.



THE YOUNGER WINTHROP.

In 1643 Connecticut became a member of the union of New England. New Haven, which had not adopted the Connecticut constitution, was also admitted. In the following year Saybrook was annexed to the parent colony. Up to the middle of the century fears were constantly entertained of a conflict with the Dutch. In 1650, however, Governor Stuyvesant and the commissioners of Connecticut met at Hartford and framed a treaty by which the boundary between his province and that of the English was established. In the brief space of a year war broke out between England and Holland, and the conflict was about to be renewed in America; but before the colonists actually took up arms news of peace arrived, and the war was happily averted.

When monarchy was restored in England, Connecticut at once recognized Charles II. as their rightful sovereign. In doing so, they were moved not so much by their political principles as by the hope of obtaining from

that monarch a charter for their colony; for none such had as yet been secured. The younger Winthrop was sent in this interest to London with a constitution which the

Hartford patriots had drawn for themselves. This the King was induced to sign, and Winthrop came back in high spirits to the rejoicing people of Connecticut. The charter was liberal to the last degree, conceding everything but independence to the people. After this Winthrop was chosen governor annually for fourteen consecutive years. Meanwhile the population greatly increased; peace reigned; the husbandman was undisturbed in the field and the workman in his shop.

In 1675—as already narrated—Sir Edmond Andros arrived as the governor of New York, and Captain Bull, who commanded the fort at Saybrook, was ordered to surrender the fort to the new official. The order was disregarded, and when Andros having come to land undertook to read his commission, he was resisted, and finally obliged to go back foaming with anger to his ship. Eleven years later, however, Andros became governor of all New England. He established his authority first in the three eastern colonies and then came to Hartford. He went into the provincial assembly and wrote *Finis* at the bottom of the secretary's book of minutes! He demanded the surrender of the charter; but a debate ensued, and as the shades of evening fell

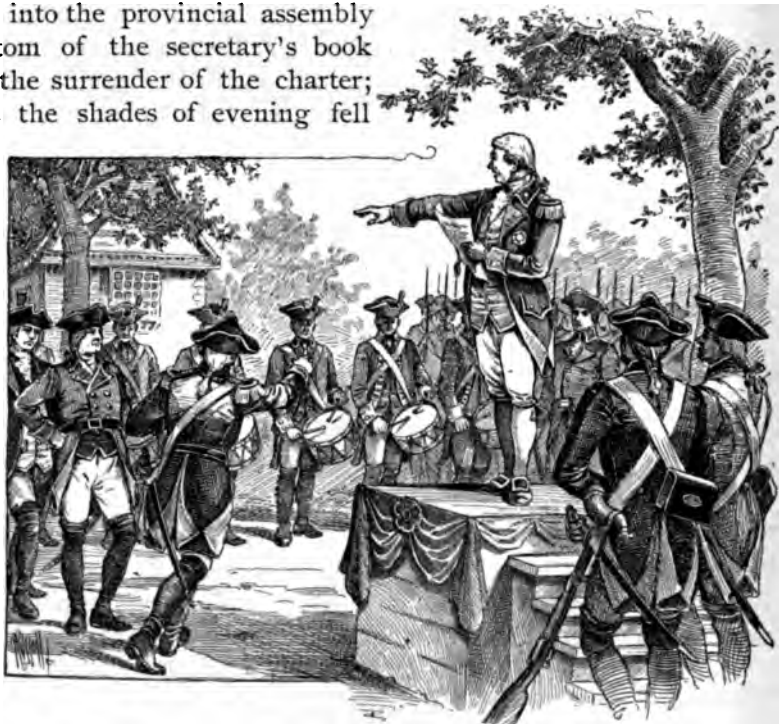
Captain Joseph Wadsworth stole the coveted instrument and hid it in the famous Charter Oak—so called from this heroic and romantic incident. Andros succeeded for the time in establishing his authority; but two years afterwards was overthrown and expelled from the colonies, as already narrated.

**THE DRUMS OF LIBERTY BEAT
DOWN THE VOICE OF
USURPATION**

In 1693, when Governor Fletcher of New York was holding rule in that province he made an unwarranted attempt to extend his authority over Con-

necticut. His commission from King William gave warrant for such a proceeding but the colonial charter forbade it. When he attempted, therefore, to assume command of the militia at Hartford Captain Wadsworth caused the drums to be beaten. "Silence, silence!" exclaimed the enraged governor. "Drum, drum!" shouted the captain. The controversy waxed hot, until Wadsworth threatened the would-be governor with a volley from the colonial muskets. Thereupon Fletcher retreated from the contest and Connecticut retained her liberties.

"I give these books for the founding of a college in this colony." Such were the words of ten ministers who, in the year 1700, met at the village of Branford, a few miles east of New Haven. Each of them as he uttered the words deposited a few volumes on the table around which they were sitting. Such was the founding of Yale College. Two years



THE VOICE OF USURPATION DROWNED BY DRUM BEATS.

afterwards the school was formally opened at Saybrook, from which place it was removed to New Haven in 1717. One of the most liberal patrons of the college was Elihu Yale, from whom the famous institution of learning derived its name.

During the first half of the eighteenth century and up to the outbreak of the French and Indian War, all the western districts of New England enjoyed a period of prosperity. The blessings of free institutions and of unbroken peace were realized in full measure by the people of Connecticut. Want was unknown and pauperism unheard of in the colony. Wealth was little cared for and crime of rare occurrence among a people with whom intelligence and virtue were the only foundations of nobility.

The story of the exile of Roger Williams from Salem and Boston has already been told. West of the Narragansett the wanderer, with a few companions who had joined him at Seekonk, laid out the settlement of Providence Plantation. This was in the summer of 1636. Williams was a man of the largest abilities and great attainments in scholarship—according to the standard of the age. Religiously he was affiliated with that most radical body of dissenters called Anabaptists. He had himself received baptism in infancy; but he came at length to doubt the validity of the ordinance so performed and determined to receive a second baptism. For this duty he selected a layman by whom he was baptized and whom he in turn baptized, with ten other exiles of the colony. Such was the organization of the first Baptist Church in America.*

Civil government followed in the simplest of simple forms. The beginning of formal society in Rhode Island was democratic in the last degree. Williams reserved for himself no rank or privilege. The lands which were purchased from the Indians were freely and equally distributed among the colonists. The governor toiled like the rest in the tilling of his two small fields. The constitution was at first a simple agreement signed by all the settlers that in all matters except those of conscience they would yield to the rule of the majority.

AN EXPERIMENTAL THEOCRACY IN AMERICA.

The "Government," moreover, bore the test of experience. Providence Plantation had peace and prosperity. At one time the magnanimity of Roger Williams led to a movement among his friends at Boston for his recall from banishment; but the ministers of Boston hotly opposed the proposition, saying that his principles and teachings would subvert the commonwealth of Massachusetts! So the proposal was rejected.

In 1638 a new company of exiles from the parent colony arrived at Rhode Island. These were led by John Clarke, William Coddington and Mrs. Ann Hutchinson. The exiles left Massachusetts to found a new colony on the Delaware; but Roger Williams bade them welcome, and Sir Henry Vane, at that time governor of Massachusetts, induced Miantonomoh, sachem of the Narragansetts, to make to the exiles a gift of the island of Rhode Island. Here the colony was planted. Portsmouth was founded first. As to a frame of government, the little band concluded that they would take ancient Israel as a model. They accordingly established a little theocracy and William Coddington was elected judge. Strange spectacle to behold on an island in Narragansett Bay the restoration or attempted revival of a form of society which had perished three thousand years before!

It was not long till the Israel of Narragansett Bay proved a failure; but the colony

* The regular Baptists do not concede the organization of their Church to Roger Williams, but regard Dr. John Clarke, of Rhode Island, as the true father of the Baptist denomination in America. Much controversy has grown out of the dispute between the two parties. Volumes have been written in behalf of each. The congregation organized by Williams was first in time; that organized by Dr. Clarke had the sanction of regularity and is accepted by regular Baptists as their original.

did not fail or wane. On the contrary, it waxed and multiplied. The establishment of a civil government succeeded the theocracy in 1641. The new style of civil affairs was entitled a "Democracie," or government by the people. The supreme authority was lodged with the whole body of freemen; and freemen in this instance meant everybody. On the seal of the State was written *Amor Vincet Omnia*—Love will conquer all things.

Rhode Island was not permitted to enter the union of New England. The refusal of the parent colony to accept those of Narragansett Bay on terms of equality and the claim now advanced by Plymouth to jurisdiction over the prosperous settlements in that region alarmed the people of Rhode Island, and they determined to make secure their political existence by obtaining a royal charter. For this purpose Roger Williams was appointed plenipotentiary of the two plantations and sent to London. There he was received by his old friend, Sir Henry Vane, who aided him in obtaining from Parliament the grant of a charter. Great was the rejoicing when the ambassador came back to his people bearing the Parliamentary patent. He was received with shouts by the people of Seekonk, who conducted him in triumph to his home at Providence.

The future history of Rhode Island was prosperous and full of promise. After the restoration of the colony through the agency of George Baxter, the people secured from King Charles II. the confirmation and reissuance of their charter and were thus firmly established as an independent democratic State. Such was the condition of affairs when near the close of the century Sir Edmond Andros arrived, broke the seal of the colony, subverted the government, appointed an irresponsible council and left the little "Democracie" in ruins.

The usurpation, however, was brief. In 1689 James II. and his royal governors and satellites passed away together. On Mayday of the following year the people of Rhode Island restored their liberties. The old democratic institutions were revived and Walter Clarke was reëlected governor. He was, however, fearful of accepting, as was also Governor Almy who was chosen in his stead. It remained for an octogenarian Quaker named Henry Bull to accept the trust and restore the old form of government. Again the little State around the Bay of the Narragansetts began to prosper. For a period of fifty years the peace of the colony was unbroken. The principles of the great founder became in large measure the principles of the commonwealth—and have remained such to the present day.

PROSPERITY ATTENDS THE COLONY IN MARYLAND.

Before closing the present chapter, we may glance at the development of Maryland, the principal southern colony after Virginia. Leonard Calvert treated the natives in the neighborhood of his settlement of St. Mary's with great liberality. The consequence was that the settlers had peace and plenty. The Indians and the colonists interchanged commodities and both were profited. Within six months the colony at St. Mary's grew into greater prosperity than that at Jamestown had reached in as many years. The pledge of civil and religious liberty made by the founder was fully redeemed; nor should the reader fail to remember that this example of almost perfect toleration on the part of the Catholics preceded by fully two years the first settlement of Rhode Island.

In 1633 the first assembly of the freemen of Maryland was convened at St. Mary's. Colonial legislation proper began two years afterwards; but owing to the destruction of the records for the first ten years not much is known of the spirit and tendency of the primitive legislation of the colony. It is certain, however, that there were serious difficulties to contend with. Clayborne, who had planted a settlement on Kent Island resisted Lord Baltimore's authority. A petty war broke out. A few were killed and one or two persons executed before the Clayborne settlement was subdued.

In 1639, representative government was established in Maryland. Soon afterwards when the news came of the English Revolution the Indians began to show signs of hostility, and in 1642 war broke out between the colonists and the natives. The conflict was less destructive and barbarous than usually happened in the case of Indian wars, and after two years of hostility a treaty was made with the savages.

The religious statutes of the colony favoring toleration date from 1649. In these freedom of conscience was guaranteed to all. One of the remarkable spectacles of the time was witnessed in the refuge which was furnished by the Catholic colonists of the Chesapeake for certain persecuted Protestants who had been proscribed and banished by other Protestants of the neighboring colonies. The bigotry of the age was further illustrated in the conduct of the Puritan and Republican party when that party gained the ascendant during the time of the commonwealth in England. The first act of the body was to acknowledge the supremacy of Cromwell, and the next was to disfranchise and outlaw the Catholics! The result was necessarily a civil war.

For several years the conflict continued until, in 1658, a compromise was affected by



TRAINING-DAY IN THE OLDEN TIME.

which Josias Fendall, deputy of Lord Baltimore, was acknowledged as governor. The acts of the Protestant assemblies, on the other hand, were recognized as valid and a general amnesty was declared for all offences.

After the death of Oliver Cromwell the people of Maryland were perplexed to choose a policy. At length, however, they declared their inde-

pendence. This led to a setting aside of the rights of Lord Baltimore and the abrogation of his council. The same course was taken by the people of Virginia. As soon as it was known, however, that Charles II. had been restored to the throne the rights of the Baltimores were revived and recognized. Governor Fendall, who had in the meantime espoused the cause of independence, was now seized and tried for treason, but his life was saved by the clemency of Lord Baltimore.

WARS BETWEEN CATHOLICS AND PROTESTANTS.

In 1675 Sir Charles Calvert succeeded to the estates and titles of the Baltimores, and for sixteen years exercised proprietary rights as governor of Maryland. The population of the colony had now increased to more than ten thousand. The laws of the province were carefully revised on the same liberal principles which had been adopted by the first Lord Baltimore. The English Revolution of 1688 brought great confusion to the colonists of the Chesapeake. The deputy of Lord Baltimore hesitated to acknowledge William and Mary as the rightful sovereigns. A rumor was spread abroad by the Protestant party that the Catholics had leagued with the Indians for the destruction of all who opposed them. This led again to war, and the Catholic party was compelled to surrender the government.

These circumstances gave opportunity and excuse to King William to interfere decisively in the affairs of the colony. On the 1st of June, 1691, the charter of Lord Baltimore was arbitrarily taken away and a royal governor appointed over the province. Sir Lionel Copley was commissioned and came out to Maryland in 1692. Not only the old patent, but the principles on which that patent was founded, were swept away. The Episcopal Church was established by law and a system of taxation was invented for its support. Religious toleration was abolished on the very scene of its greatest triumphs! For twenty-four years this condition of affairs continued until, in 1715, Queen Anne was induced to restore the heir of Lord Baltimore to the rights of his ancestors. Maryland again became a proprietary government, under the authority of the Calverts, and so continued until the Revolutionary War.

It remains to notice briefly the progress of the two Carolinas. The Albemarle county colony had for its first governor William Drummond. Shortly afterwards the Clarendon county colony was planted under the governorship of Sir John Yeamans. Both settlements flourished. Immigration was rapid, and within a single year eight hundred people settled along the River Chowan.

As for government, the task was assigned to Sir Ashley Cooper, who appointed the philosopher John Locke to prepare a constitution. In 1669 that learned man produced his frame of government called the Grand Model. The sequel showed that it had been better named the Grand Absurdity. Locke had provided in the pompous instrument for the organization of an empire in which there were to be many orders of nobility—dukes, earls and marquises, knights, lords and esquires, baronial courts, heraldic ceremony and every sort of feudal nonsense that the human imagination could conceive. Such was the magnificent constitution which wisdom had planned for the government of a few colonists who lived on venison and potatoes and paid their debts with tobacco.

The people of Carolina, however, proceeded to organize for self-government after the simple manner of pioneers. The Grand Model was found impossible of application and after twenty years was cast aside. The soil of Clarendon county was poor, and in 1671 the greater number of colonists were removed to the mouth of the Ashley River. By the close of the century the primitive settlement was abandoned, but Albemarle county was more prosperous.

DISTRACTIONS AND OPPRESSIONS.

In 1680 the notorious Seth Sothel became deputy governor of Carolina; but he was fortunately captured by pirates, and did not arrive until 1683. For five years he defrauded and oppressed the people, until he was finally overthrown and sentenced by the General Assembly to disfranchisement and twelve months' banishment from North Carolina. Other governors followed of greater prudence and probity. Immigration continued, principally from Virginia and Maryland. Quakers came from New England and the Delaware.

In 1707 a band of French Huguenots arrived from France. A hundred families of German refugees escaped from their distant homes beyond the Rhine to find asylum on the banks of the Neuse. Peasants from Switzerland came, and founded New Berne at the mouth of Trent River. Meanwhile the Indian nations receded and wasted away. Peace was maintained with the natives until 1711, when a brief war completed the ruin of the natives and expelled them from the better parts of North Carolina.

Such in general was the course of events in the northern colony until its separation from the southern. This was effected in 1729. The Cape Fear River was made the dividing line, and a royal governor was appointed for each of the two colonies. In South

Carolina immigration had not lagged. Many circumstances favored the settlement of this province and few disasters retarded it. Old Charleston remained the capital until the year 1680, when the present metropolis was founded on the peninsula called Oyster Point, between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers.

The best nations of Europe contributed to the population of New Charleston and of the whole country between the Cape Fear and the Savannah. Hither came in great numbers the French Huguenots. They were met by the proprietaries with pledges of protection and promise of citizenship; but for a season they were treated with distrust by the English colonists. Not until 1697 were all discriminations against the French immigrants removed. A just civil administration of the colony was not obtained until 1695, when John Archdale, a distinguished and talented Quaker, was appointed governor. Under his influence a law was enacted by which the Huguenots were admitted to full citizenship, and all Christians *except the Catholics* were enfranchised. The ungenerous exception was made by the assembly against the governor's will.

Early in the eighteenth century the Church of England was established by law in South Carolina. All the dissenters were disfranchised. An appeal was made by the minority to the proprietaries of the province, but they refused to listen. The appeal was then carried to Parliament, and by that body it was decided that the proprietaries had forfeited their charter. The legislature thereupon revoked its own act; but the Episcopal Church remained as the religious establishment of South Carolina.

In 1729 seven of the eight proprietaries of the Carolinas sold their entire claims in the provinces to the King. Lord Carteret, the eighth, would surrender nothing but his right of jurisdiction, reserving his share in the soil. Royal governors were hereupon appointed, and the affairs of South Carolina were settled on a permanent basis not to be disturbed for more than forty years.

The people who colonized the Carolinas were brave and chivalrous. On the banks of the Santee, the Edisto and the Combahee were gathered some of the best elements of the European nations. Equally with the rugged Puritans of the north the Carolinians were lovers of liberty. Without the severe morality and formal manners of the Pilgrims, the people became the leaders in courtly politeness and high-toned honor between man and man. In the coming struggle for freedom and independence the colonists of the South, now risen to the stature of American citizens, showed themselves to be worthy descendants of their ancestors. They joined hands with their fellows of the North in the Declaration of Independence, suffered in that great cause, and helped as much as any to vindicate it with their swords.



BOOK SECOND.

Epoch of Independence.

CHAPTER X.

THE OLD THIRTEEN.



WE are here to enter upon an account of the first movements made in common by the American colonies—the first half-conscious attempts of our thirteen primitive republics to enter into union. Such had been the nature of the various colonial establishments—such the diverse nationalities and antagonistic principles which had contributed to form the early plantations—that few or none of our citizens of the first half of the eighteenth century accepted as true the aphorism, “In union there is strength.”

On the contrary the fathers held practically the notion that strength lay in diversity and independence. The founders of the American colonies came to America to find individuality, freedom, the liberty of localism, exemption from the exactions of authority and the hardships of power. The isolation of the early American settlements may well remind the reader of the bristling individualism of the ancient Greek democracies. If there ever is to be an American Union, therefore, the old-time spirit and purpose of the colonists must be changed, transformed into a new mood and tense, turned into a different channel of will and action.

It is needless to point out the manner in which such changes are historically effected. War is the usual agent which history adopts in the destruction of social and race prejudices. Although new prejudices are produced thereby, the old are extinguished. It was destined to be so in the case of our American colonies. Their segregation was to be overcome and their prejudices finally abated, not indeed by one war, but by many. We have now arrived at the time when an inter-colonial conflict was imminent and when the English colonists in America must out of the sentiment of safety join their issues in a common cause against a common foe. This movement was the beginning of American independence. We should not wait for the passage of the Stamp Act, for the Boston Tea-party, the Port Bill, the coming of a British army from Halifax to the metropolis of New England, the meeting of a Colonial Congress, the flash of musketry at Lexington or on the slopes of Breed's pasture—to note the beginning of our War for Independence. That decisive and world-changing

event began with the first tentative efforts of the American colonies to act as one. The sentiment of unity was the germ of nationality and whenever the first appeared the second began to be.

Before entering upon an account of the French and Indian war (for that is the conflict to which reference is made in the preceding paragraphs) it is appropriate to sketch briefly the general condition of our colonial republics at the middle of the eighteenth century—to give some account of their attainments, dispositions, tendencies and purposes while they still stood asunder under the influence of the forces which had created them as distinct entities on our coasts.

The colonies were thirteen in number. Four of them constituted New England, namely, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut and New Hampshire. Four were Middle Colonies—New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware. Five were Southern Colonies—Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia. All had grown and prospered. True, the rate of progress—as progress is estimated at the close of the nineteenth century—was exceedingly slow, but it was nevertheless progress. The elements of power, rather than the exhibition of power, were present in all the colonies. A wilful, patriotic and vigorous race of democrats had taken possession of the Atlantic seaboard and had fitted themselves with skill and courage to their new environment. Institutions unknown in Europe, peculiar to the situations of these peoples in the New World, made necessary by the conditions and surroundings of the colonies, had sprung up and taken deep root in American soil.

POPULATION OF THE COLONIAL STATES.

At the middle of the eighteenth century the entire population of the old thirteen colonies was about a million and a half. Ten years later the estimates recorded a million six hundred and ninety-five thousand souls. Of these about three hundred and ten thousand were blacks. Massachusetts was at this period the strongest colony, having more than two hundred thousand people of European ancestry within her borders. True, Virginia had a greater aggregate population, numbering altogether two hundred and eighty-four thousand inhabitants; but of these a hundred and sixteen thousand were Africans—slaves. Next in order stood Pennsylvania with her population of nearly two hundred thousand; next Connecticut with her hundred and thirty thousand people; next Maryland with a hundred and four thousand; then New York with eighty-five thousand; New Jersey not quite as many; then South Carolina, and so through the feebler colonies to Georgia, in whose borders were fewer than five thousand inhabitants, including the negroes.

By the middle of the century the people of the American colonies had, to a certain extent, approximated a common character. The old-time differences, however, still existed to a marked degree. The peculiarities which the ancestors of the colonists had brought with them from Europe were retained by their descendants, though with a measure of modification. In New England, particularly in Massachusetts and Connecticut, the principles and practices of Puritanism still prevailed, and were universally recognized as the foundations of good society. To a certain extent, however, the lineaments of the system as it had existed at the middle of the seventeenth century were softened and relaxed. Though the Church was still dominant over secular society, its tyranny was not so absolute and galling as it had been aforetime.

On the banks of the Hudson the manners and customs of Holland were still prevalent, in some districts almost as prevalent as they had been a hundred years before. In other parts of New York, the English language and people had predominated. This was particu-

larly true at New York city, which by this time had become thoroughly Anglicized. Beyond the Delaware the Quakers had gathered in great numbers. They controlled the Legislature of Pennsylvania, and gave form to society. Other elements had been freely admit-



PERSECUTION OF THE MORAVIANS.

ted into the colony; but were not thus far sufficiently strong to bring serious innovations upon the simple methods of civil and social life introduced by Penn and his companions.

An exception to this peaceful condition and freedom of opinion was found, however, in the general bearing of society against the Moravians, who, though somewhat like the Quakers, were yet made objects of the bitterest persecutions, particularly in New York and Connecticut, where the Catholics held them in extreme aversion. They were charged with inciting the Iroquois Indians to hostility in the interest of France, and other specific allegations of perfidy were made to incite popular hatred and thus to justify the abuses to which they were subjected. Refusing to subscribe to an oath on religious scruples, this refusal was made the excuse for the passage of a law prohibiting any person living in the province who objected to being bound by such obligation. In order to carry this iniquitous law into effect, the Moravians were attacked in the most inhuman manner and driven with blows from their fields, homes and workshops, by which persecutions the Moravian missions had to be abandoned. Intolerance did its work, and bigotry was accordingly increased, to the insecurity of society.

SOCIETY IN THE STATES.

On the northern bank of the Potomac, the youthful Frederick, the sixth Lord Baltimore, a frivolous and dissolute personage, ruled the people who still conformed to the order of things established a century and a quarter previously by Sirs George, Cecil and Leonard Calvert. The revolutions to which the province had been subjected had abated somewhat its distinctly Catholic character; but the Mother Church was still in great reputation and power. Baltimore had grown to be an important city, though the province as a whole had been pressed between the two powerful colonies of Pennsylvania and Virginia, until the territory had been narrowed in some parts almost to a thread.

In Virginia, the mother of States and statesmen, the people had retained their old peculiarities. Here pride of ancestry more than elsewhere had prevailed to give an aristocratic cast to society. The Virginians had cultivated a somewhat haughty demeanor. They had taken their models from the English nobility. Broad estates gave honor to those who possessed them. Fondness for the aristocratic life, and in particular for the sports of the aristocracy had become a passion. There was much seclusiveness, but it was accompanied with hospitality; great dignity, hauteur, artificialities of honor; but these were blended with a sincere love of freedom.

The North Carolinians were at this epoch the same rugged and insubordinate race of hunters that they had always been. They were pioneers by preference. To them commerce and the city life had few attractions. They carried their personal peculiarities into the civil affairs of the colony. The legislative assembly in its controversies with Governor Dobbs manifested all the intractable stubbornness which characterized that body in the days of Seth Sothel.

In South Carolina there was much prosperity and happiness; but there, too, popular liberty had been enlarged by the constant encroachment of the Legislature upon the royal prerogative. The people were mostly of French descent, and were as hot-blooded and jealous of their rights as their Huguenot ancestors had been in the time of their exile and banishment. Very elegant and proud and high-mannered was the little society of the upper blood, which might be seen in the homes and evening parties of Charleston at the middle of the eighteenth century. Not a little fine dress was there—much chivalry among the young men of the day—much beauty and fine bearing among the ladies of the little seaport city.

Of all the colonies Georgia had at this time the least strength and spirit. Under the system of government established at the first the commonwealth had languished. Perhaps the liberated debtors from the English jails and their first descendants were not able to rise at

once into a large prosperity. It was not until 1754, when Governor Reynolds assumed control of the colony, that the affairs of the people on the Savannah began to flourish. Even afterwards something of the indigence and want of thrift and spirit which had marked the followers of Oglethorpe still prevailed in Georgia. Nevertheless, after making allowance for all these differences of colonial character as they might be noted in the sixth decade of the century, a considerable degree of American unity had been attained. Inter-colonial relations had been established by which even the remotest colonies were in some slight degree bound the one to the other. The old religious prejudices had softened under the influence of time and intelligence, and the people as a whole were far less antagonistic, individual and sectional than they had been in the seventeenth century.

EDUCATIONAL ADVANTAGES.

In the matter of education New England had from the first taken the lead. She had at an early date established the system of free schools and these were now extended to every



village and hamlet from the Penobscot to the Hudson. Each town or district furnished its own local facilities for the acquirement of knowledge. So complete and universal were the means of instruction that in the epoch immediately preceding the Revolution there was said not to be found in all New England an adult born in the country who could not read and write! Whatever, therefore, may have been the narrowness and bigotry of Puritanism as a system of religion, its record on the question of education is worthy to be written in gold.

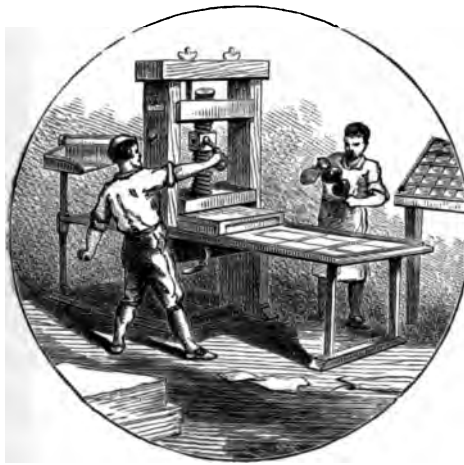
True it is that the universal education of a people situated as the New England colonists were during the first half the eighteenth century is an easy task as compared with the universal instruction of such a people as now inhabit the same States of the Union. In the present age the volume of population is vastly expanded. The difficulty of a general supervision over society is infinitely greater than when a few towns and villages with salubrious country districts stretching between furnished the whole body of the people. Now the waters of population are disturbed with cross currents and made muddy with the discharge therein of a hundred foreign streams. A vast municipal life of depravity, ignorance, vice, ambition, luxury on the one hand and squalor on the other, has succeeded to the simple and wholesome life which still prevailed in the New England of a hundred and fifty years ago. Still, after allowance for all this shall have been fully made, we must be convinced, as before, that the success of the Puritan colonies in promoting the institution of free schools and in making universal education not only a possibility but a fact stands unparalleled in the history of the western nations.

In the Middle Colonies education was not so general. In Pennsylvania, however, there was a wholesome system of public schools and much intelligent activity among the people. In this colony the greatest distinction was achieved by individuals. Here it was that the illustrious Franklin scattered the light of learning, not only in Philadelphia and the Quaker commonwealth, not only throughout the American colonies, but even to foreign shores.

South of the Potomac educational facilities were insufficient and irregular. The schools in these parts were generally designed for the benefit of the wealthier classes. In some localities, however, the means of enlightenment were well provided. Institutions of learning sprang up scarcely inferior to those of the eastern provinces or of Europe. Education in the South, however, was rather a matter of personal than of social enterprise. Men established schools, while villages and hamlets and towns neglected to do so. It could hardly be said, therefore, that in the South—taking Virginia as the standard—the people were educated. Certainly they were not universally instructed even in the rudiments of learning. The private schools generally owed their origin to those who taught therein. Many men—Scottish reformers, Irish liberals and French patriots—despising the bigotry and intolerance of their countrymen, fled for refuge to the New World and there by the banks of the Housatonic, the Hudson, the Delaware, the Potomac, the Ashley and the Savannah, taught the lore of books and the lesson of civil liberty to the rugged boys of the American wilderness.

LOG SCHOOL-HOUSE AND THE SCREW PRINTING PRESS.

Among the Southern Colonies Virginia led the van in educational enterprises. The Virginian youth born in the middle decades of the eighteenth century were among the largest brained of the sons of men. Such must needs be educated. They themselves would find a way or make it. Some found it in private academies; some with individual teachers who had been well educated in the universities of Europe; others in the colleges of the commonwealth; while only a few were sent abroad for instruction. The planters of this period were fully able to give their sons liberal educations in the universities of the mother country; but there was clearly a growing dislike of foreign instruction and an increasing preference for the home institution of learning such as it was.



PRINTING THE BOSTON NEWS LETTER.

In Maryland, the Carolinas and Georgia the cause of education lagged behind. Previous to the Revolution nine colleges worthy of the name had been established in the American colonies. These were Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Princeton, King's, (now Columbia), Brown, Queen's (afterwards called Rutgers'), Dartmouth, and Hampden and Sydney. In 1764 the first medical college in America was founded at Philadelphia.

We have already spoken of the early institution of the printing press. This great agent and forerunner of civilization abounded—not in the sense that it abounds at the present day, but relatively to the condition and activities of society. Before the Revolution the press was already effective as an organ of opinion and promoter of public rights. As early as 1774 the *Boston News Letter*, first of periodicals in the New World, was pub-

lished in the city of the Puritans. Fifteen years elapsed, however, before another experiment of the same sort was made. In 1721 the New England *Courant*, a little sheet devoted to free thought and the extinction of rascality was established at Boston by the two Franklins—James and Benjamin. As late as 1740 New York had but one periodical; Virginia one, and South Carolina one; and at the close of the French and Indian War there were no more than ten newspapers published in the American colonies.

Perhaps the chief obstacles to such publications were the absence of great cities and the difficulty of communication between distant sections of the country. Boston and Philadelphia had each at this period no more than eighteen thousand inhabitants; New York had but twelve thousand. In all Virginia there was not one important town; while from her southern limit as far south as the borders of Florida there was scarcely a considerable village. To reach this widely scattered population with periodical publications was quite impossible. As for popular literature, there was little or none. Books were few, and many of those which the colonial libraries afforded were as husks and straw to the hungry mind of man. Some dry volumes of annals (dignified by the name of history), theology and politics were the only stock and store. On the latter subject the publications were sometimes full of pith and spirit.

It was in the political treatise, great or small, that the pre-Revolutionary author found vent for what wit and wisdom soever nature had given him withal. In this there was freedom. As for religious books the old theology was in full force and sat like a nightmare on every page. Historical literature had not yet appeared in the earth, at least not since the death of the classical ages, and the novel was generally ruled out by the dogmatic spirit of the age. But notwithstanding this barrenness of books and general poverty of the resources of knowledge, it was no unusual thing to find at the foot of the Virginia mountains, in the quiet precincts of Philadelphia, by the banks of the Hudson, or in the valleys and towns of New England, a man of great and solid learning. Such a man was Thomas Jefferson; such were Franklin and Livingston, and the Adamses, and of a later date Hamilton—men of profound scholarship, bold in thought, ready with the pen, skilful in argument, studious, witty and eloquent.

MEANS OF TRAVEL AND COMMUNICATION.

Nothing proved to be a greater impediment to the progress of the colonies than the want of roads and thoroughfares. Easy and rapid communication between the different sections was unknown. No general system of post-offices or post-roads had as yet been established; and the people were thus left in comparative or total ignorance of events in neighborhoods and settlements not very remote from their own. As a rule, the people of one colony heard only at a late day, and then by imperfect tradition and flying rumor, of the events of another colony—even events of the greatest importance. No common sentiments could be expressed—no common enthusiasm be kindled in the country by the slow-going mails and packets. The sea-coast towns and cities found a readier intercourse by means of small sloops plying the Atlantic; but the inland districts were almost wholly cut off from this advantage. Roads were slowly built from point to point and lines of travel by coach and wagon were gradually established.

It thus happened that to the very beginning of the Revolution the American colonists lived apart. They were isolated and dependent upon their own resources for life and enjoyment. Doubtless there was in the condition quite a tinge of solitude; but it should be remembered that solitude is one of the greatest and most efficient schools of instruction. In it the faculties acquire a peculiar robustness, a strength and vigor which may well

betoken heroic action, patriotism and longevity. It was at this epoch that the means of inter-communication began to be enlarged and improved. In 1766 an express wagon made the trip from New York to Philadelphia in two days. Such rate of speed was considered a marvel of rapidity ! Six years later the first stage coach began to run regularly between Boston and Providence.*

If we glance at the industrial life we shall find that before the Revolution the Americans were for the most part an agricultural people. Within the tidewater line of Virginia the lands were divided into estates, and the planters devoted themselves almost exclusively to the cultivation of tobacco. Further inland the products were more various. Above the line of tidewater wheat, corn, potatoes, upland cotton, hemp and flax were easily and abundantly produced. In the Carolinas and Georgia the rice crop was most important ; after that, indigo, cotton and some silk ; tar, turpentine, and what the hunter and fisherman gathered from the woods and streams. New York, Philadelphia and Boston were then as now the great centres of trade ; but commerce was carried on in a slow and awkward manner wholly unlike the rushing activity of more recent times.

One of the most important industrial interests of the colonies was shipbuilding. In New England the people of the coasts were generally experts in the building and management of ships, such as ships were at the middle of the eighteenth century. In the year 1738 no fewer than forty-one sailing vessels, with an average burden of a hundred and fifty tons, were built and launched at the shipyards of Boston. This was done, as all the world knows, in the face of the restrictions laid by the mother country on every marine enterprise promoted among the Americans.

New England was the seat of the principal manufacturing interests of the country. Everything in this direction, however, was checked and impeded by the British Board of Trade, whose arbitrary restrictions acted as a damper on all manner of colonial thrift and enterprise. No sooner would some young and prosperous company of New England men begin the building of a factory than this officious Board would interfere in such a way as to make success impossible. So jealous was the English Ministry of American progress ! If previous to the Revolution any colonial manufactures were successfully established, it was done against the will of Great Britain and in spite of her mean and churlish opposition.

Such were the American colonies at the time when they first began to act as one in a common cause. New generations had now arisen with kindlier feelings and more charitable sentiments than had been entertained by the austere fathers of the seventeenth century. New conditions had appeared, new relations of a complex and international character, which were well calculated to bring the people of the American communities into concord and final union of action. The event which history had reserved as the immediate cause of such approximation and union of effort was the event of war.

* The reader may naturally conclude that the American colonies were greatly behindhand in developing the means of inter-communication ; but not so. The classical nations of antiquity built great thoroughfares from State to State ; but in the Middle Ages great roads were almost unknown in Europe. Even in England such works lagged to a late period. In so old a country as Scotland there were no great thoroughfares constructed until after the Scotch rebellion of 1745.

CHAPTER XI.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.



It was the sense of a common danger that led our colonial fathers of 1754 to unite their energies in repelling a foe equally inimical to all. The time was now at hand when the final struggle should occur between France and England for colonial supremacy in America. It was necessity that compelled the English colonies to combine their energies against the French. We may here note briefly the causes of the war which ensued, first in America and afterwards between the parent nations in Europe.

The first and most efficient of these causes was the conflicting territorial claims of France and England. The latter had colonized the American seaboard; the former had colonized the interior of the continent. Great Britain occupied the coast, but her claims reached far beyond her colonies. The English kings had always proceeded upon the theory that the prior discoveries of the Cabots had established a just claim, not only to the countries along the coast, but also to the great inland region stretching westward to the Pacific.

The claims of France were of a different kind. She had colonized first of all the valley of the St. Lawrence. Montreal, one of her earliest settlements, was planted five hundred miles from the sea. In the latter half of the seventeenth century the French pushed their way westward and southward, first along the shores of the Great Lakes, then to the headwaters of the Wabash, the Illinois, the Wisconsin and the St. Croix, then down these streams to the Mississippi, and then to the Gulf of Mexico.

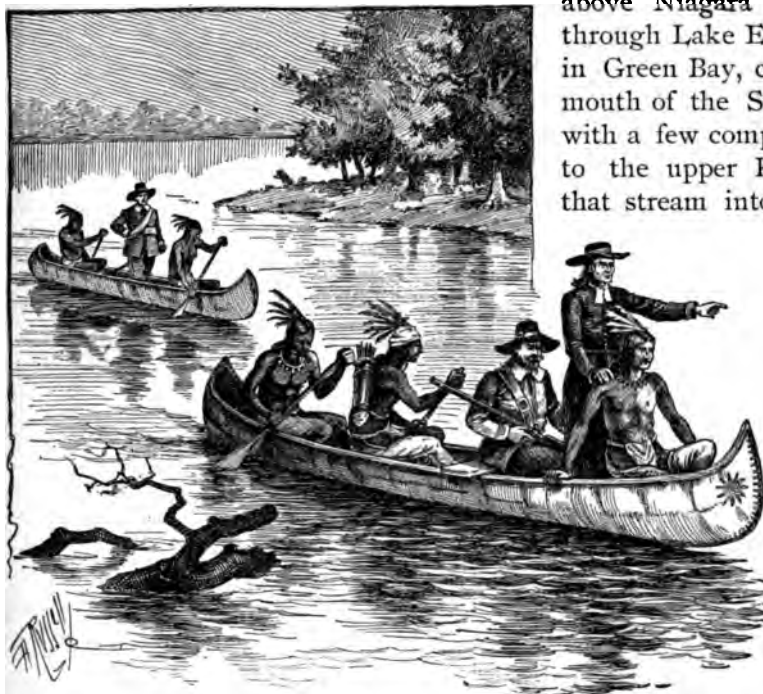
The historical effect and perhaps the conscious purpose of these movements were easily discoverable. The result was to divide North America by circumscribing the English colonies with a broad band of French territory which would enable France to possess first the great river valleys of the interior, and afterwards the better half of the continent. It might indeed have been apprehended *a priori* that France and England, occupying the hither verge of Europe, would be the leading nations to colonize the central parts of North America, and also that these two States would ultimately contend for the mastery in the New World. The events corresponded to expectation.

The work of French colonization in America had been chiefly effected by the Jesuit missionaries. In 1641 Charles Raymbault, first of the great explorers, passed through the northern straits of Lake Huron and entered Lake Superior. In the thirty years that followed the Jesuit missionaries continued their explorations with prodigious activity. Missions were established at various points north of the lakes and in the countries afterwards called Michigan, Wisconsin and Illinois. In 1673 Fathers Joliet and Marquette passed from the headwaters of Fox River over the watershed to the upper tributaries of the Wis-

consiu, and thence down that river in a seven day's voyage to the Mississippi. It was now a hundred and thirty-three years since the discovery of the Father of Waters by De Soto. For a full month the canoe of Joliet and Marquette bore them downward toward the sea. They passed the mouth of the Arkansas River and reached the limit of their voyage at the thirty-third parallel of latitude. Turning their boat up stream they entered the mouth of the Illinois, and returned by the site of Chicago into Lake Michigan and thence to Detroit.

EXPLORATIONS OF LA SALLE, AND HIS ASSASSINATION.

It remained for Robert de La Salle, most illustrious of the French explorers, to trace the Mississippi to its mouth. This indomitable adventurer built and launched the first ship



FATHER JOLIET AND MARQUETTE DESCENDING THE MISSISSIPPI.

above Niagara Falls. He sailed westward through Lake Erie and Lake Huron, anchored in Green Bay, crossed Lake Michigan to the mouth of the St. Joseph, ascended that stream with a few companions, traversed the country to the upper Kankakee and dropped down that stream into the Illinois. Here disasters overtook the expedition and La Salle was obliged to return on foot to Fort Frontenac, a distance of nearly a thousand miles! During his absence Father Hennepin, a member of the company, traversed Illinois, found the Mississippi and ascended the great river as far as the falls of St. Anthony.

In 1681 La Salle reorganized his expedition and sailed down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. Afterwards he made his way back

to Quebec and then returned to France. He formed vast plans for colonizing the valley of the Mississippi and induced Louis XIV. to take an interest in the enterprise. Four ships, bearing two hundred and eighty emigrants, were equipped and left France in July of 1684. Beaujeu commanded the fleet and La Salle led the colony in person. His plan was to plant a new State on the banks of the lower Mississippi. The captain, however, was headstrong and against La Salle's entreaties steered the squadron out of its course to the west, so that instead of reaching the mouth of the Mississippi he entered the bay of Matagorda. Here a landing was effected, but the store-ship was wrecked and lost. Nevertheless a colony was established and Texas became a part of Louisiana.

La Salle now made unwearied efforts to rediscover the Mississippi. It would appear that he was not well informed as to the best direction to be taken in order to reach the great river. His expeditions were attended with many misfortunes; but his own resolute spirit remained tranquil in the midst of calamity. At last he set out with sixteen companions to cross the continent to Canada. The march began in January of 1687 and continued for

sixty days. The wanderers reached the basin of the Colorado. Discontent and treachery had in the meantime arisen in his camp. On the 20th of March, while La Salle was at some distance from the rendezvous two conspirators of his own company hiding in the prairie grass took a fatal aim and shot the famous explorer dead in his tracks. Only seven of the adventurers succeeded in reaching a French settlement on the Mississippi.

It was thus that the great inland circuit of the American lakes and rivers was revealed by exploration to the knowledge of men. France was not slow to occupy the vast region traversed by the Jesuit fathers. As early as 1688 military posts and missions had been established at Frontenac, at Niagara, at the straits of Mackinac and on the Illinois River. Before the middle of the eighteenth century permanent settlements had been planted by the French on the Maumee, at Detroit, at the mouth of the St. Joseph, at Green Bay, at Vincennes, on the lower Wabash, on the Mississippi at the mouth of the Kaskaskia, at Fort Rosalie—the present sight of Natchez—and on the Gulf of Mexico.

JEALOUSIES BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

A second cause of the conflict about to ensue was the long-standing animosity of France and England. The rivalry between these two great States of Western Europe was as old as



LA SALLE AND HIS COMPANIONS ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

the Dark Ages. The jealousy of the one for the other extended over both land and sea. When at the close of the seventeenth century it was seen that the people of the English colonies outnumbered those of New France by nearly twenty to one the French government was filled with envy. When by the enterprise of the Jesuit missionaries and explorers the French began to dot the basin of the Mississippi with fortresses and to monopolize the fur trade with the Indians England could not conceal her wrath.

A third and more immediate cause of the oncoming war was the conflict of interests, and soon afterwards the conflict of arms between the frontiersmen of the two nations in the Ohio valley. These difficulties began about the year 1749. By this time the strolling traders and hunters of Virginia and Pennsylvania had made their way through the mountains and begun to frequent the Indian towns on the tributaries of the Ohio. The French traders of Canada visited the same villages and they and the English were brought into competition in the purchase of furs from the natives.

Virginia in accordance with the terms of her ancient charters claimed the whole country between her western borders and the southern shores of Lake Erie. The French fur gatherers of this district were under this construction intruders in the territories of another State. The Virginians were in no measure disposed to yield or modify their claim. In order to prevent further encroachment a number of the leading men of the colony joined themselves together in a body called the Ohio Company with a view to the immediate occupation of the disputed country. The leading members of the corporation were Governor Robert Dinwiddie, Lawrence and Augustus Washington and Thomas Lee, President of the Virginia Council.

In March of 1749 George II. of England granted to this company an extensive tract of land covering an aggregate of five hundred thousand acres. The grant was to be located between the Kanawha and the Monongahela, or on the northern bank of the River Ohio. Before the company could send out a colony, however, the French governor of Canada despatched three hundred men to preoccupy the upper Ohio valley. In the next year the Ohio Company sent out its first exploring party under Christopher Gist, who traversed the country and returned to Virginia in 1751.

The issue was now clear. It was simply who should preoccupy and possess the region where the Ohio gathers his waters. The expedition of Gist was followed by vigorous counter movements on the part of the French. The latter built a fort called Le Boeuf on French creek, and another named Venango on the Alleghany. About the same time the country south of the Ohio was a second time explored by Christopher Gist and a party of armed surveyors.

In 1753 the English constructed a road from Wills's creek through the mountains, and the first small colony was planted on the Youghiogheny.



ASSASSINATION OF LA SALLE.

THE ISSUES OF WAR.

All of these movements proceeded in superb disregard of the rights of the native races. The Indians were greatly alarmed at this double intrusion of the whites into their country. Thus far the English rather than the French had secured the favor of the red men; but the allegiance of the latter was uncertain. In the spring of 1753 the Miami tribes, under the leadership of a chieftain called the Half-King, met Benjamin Franklin at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and made a satisfactory treaty with the English; but the ties thus established were, as the sequel showed, but slight and easily broken.

The great difficulty thus precipitated between the French and the English in the Ohio valley was for some time almost unnoticed and unknown by the parent nations. The people of the English colonies, however, were greatly excited. The Virginians were ready for war, but Governor Dinwiddie determined in the first place to try diplomacy. He would send a formal remonstrance to the French authorities warning them to withdraw and stand off from the territory belonging to Virginia. A paper was drawn up setting forth the nature and validity of the English claim to the valley of the river Ohio, and warning the



THE HALF-KING OF THE MIAMIS CONCLUDING A TREATY WITH THE ENGLISH.

French against further intrusion. The young surveyor, George Washington, was called upon by the governor to carry this paper from Williamsburg to General St. Pierre, commandant of the French at Presque Isle, on Lake Erie.

On the last of October, 1753, the youthful Washington set out on his mission. He was attended by four comrades, besides an interpreter and Christopher Gist, the guide. The party reached the Youghiogheny and passed down that stream to the site of Pittsburgh. At a place called Logstown Washington held a friendly council with the Indians and then pressed forward to Venango. From this point he traversed the trackless forest to Fort Le

Bœuf. Here the conference was held with St. Pierre. Washington was received with French politeness ; but the General refused to enter into any discussion of the great questions involved in the remonstrance of Virginia. He was acting, he said, under military instructions, and would presently eject every Englishman from the Ohio valley.

Bearing this unsatisfactory reply, Washington took leave of the French and returned to the Alleghany with Gist as his only companion. That stream was so filled with floating ice that crossing was extremely perilous. But regardless of the danger, the two intrepid travellers made a rude raft of logs which they launched and upon which they pushed their



WASHINGTON FIRED AT BY A LURKING SAVAGE.

way through the ice to the opposite shore. Washington left the river at Fort Venango and struck into the woods. Clad in the robe of an Indian ; sleeping with frozen clothes on a bed of pine brush ; guided at night by the North star ; fired at by a prowling savage from his covert ; lodging on an island in the Alleghany until the river was frozen over ; plunging again into the forest ; reaching Gist's settlement and then the Potomac—

the strong-limbed young ambassador came back without wound or scar to the capital of Virginia. The defiant despatch of St. Pierre was laid before Governor Dinwiddie, and the first public service of Washington was accomplished.

THE FOUNDING OF PITTSBURGH.

The next movement of the English was made in the early spring of 1754. A volunteer party led by an explorer named Trent reached the confluence of the Alleghany and the Monongahela, and built the first rude stockade on the site of Pittsburgh. After all the boasting and threats of the French, the English had beaten them and seized the key to the Ohio Valley. It was not to be expected, however, that such an occupation as that of Trent could long be made good in the face of the purpose and forces of the French. The successful establishment of the English fort at the juncture of the two rivers was a short-lived triumph. As soon as the Alleghany was opened for navigation to boats, the French fleet which had been prepared at Venango came sweeping down the river. Trent with his handful of men could offer no successful resistance. He was driven away by the French, who immediately occupied the place, felled the forest trees, built barracks and laid the foundations of Fort Du Quesne.

As for Washington he had now been commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the Virginia militia and stationed at Alexandria to enlist recruits for a campaign into the disputed country. A regiment of a hundred and fifty men had been enrolled ; but it was impossible to bring succor to Trent in time to save the post. On the 17th of April the commanding position at the head of the Ohio was surrendered, while Washington was not able to set

out from Wills's Creek until the latter part of the same month. Negotiations had now failed. Remonstrances had been tried in vain. The possession of the disputed territory was at length to be determined by the harsher methods of war.

But as yet there was no formal war. France and England were at peace. Dating from the spring of 1754, it was fully two years before the formal outbreak of the seven years' war in Europe; but the French and English colonies in America were already involved in that conflict which was to decide the possession of the larger and better part of the continent. For good reason, therefore, the struggle upon an account of which we are now to enter has generally been called in American history the French and Indian War.

It fell to Colonel Washington, acting under the authority of Virginia, to begin the conflict. According to his instructions he was to proceed with a regiment of frontier soldiers, like himself wholly inexperienced in war, to build a fort at the source of the Ohio and to repel all who should interrupt the English settlements in that part of the country. Late in April the young commander, now but twenty-two years of age, left Wills's Creek on the toilsome march for his destination. The men were obliged to drag their cannon. The roads were in miserable condition from the spring rains. Rivers were bridgeless and provisions insufficient.

WASHINGTON FIRES THE FIRST GUN.

Late in May, 1754, the English reached a place called the Great Meadows, in Pennsylvania. Here Washington learned that the French had anticipated his movement and were on the march to meet him. The little army was halted. A stockade was immediately erected and named Fort Necessity. Washington then conferred with the Mingo chiefs and decided to strike the first blow. Indian guides led the way to where the French were encamped. The latter, however, were on the alert and sprang to arms. "Fire!" was the command of Washington and the first volley of a great war went flying through the forest. Jumonville, leader of the French and ten of his party were killed, and twenty-one were made prisoners.



WASHINGTON ATTACKING THE FRENCH ENCAMPMENT.

Having won in the initial encounter, Washington returned to Fort Necessity and waited for reinforcements. His waiting, however, was fruitless. Only a single company of volunteers arrived. The young commander spent the time in cutting a road for twenty miles in the direction of Pittsburgh. He had hoped that the Indians from the Muskingum and the Miami country would join him in the movement against the French, but in this he was disappointed. His whole force numbered about four hundred men. While engaged in opening a road in the direction of the enemy Washington learned that

the French general, De Villiers, was approaching with a large force and he therefore deemed it prudent to plant himself at Fort Necessity. Scarcely had he succeeded in reaching the fort when on the 3d of July De Villiers came in sight. The stockade was at once surrounded by the French. They stationed themselves on an eminence about sixty yards distant in a position from which they could fire down upon the English with fatal effect. The Indian allies of De Villiers climbed into the tree-tops where in concealment they could see into the fort. For nine hours, during a rain storm, the assailants poured an incessant shower of balls upon the little band in the fort. Thirty of Washington's men were killed; but his tranquil presence encouraged the rest and the battle was continued. At length the French commander proposed a parley. Washington seeing that it would be impossible to hold out much longer, accepted the honorable terms of capitulation which were offered by De Villiers. On the 4th of July—significant day of the future—the English garrison, retaining all its accoutrements marched out of the little fort so bravely defended and withdrew from the country.

Meanwhile a Congress of the American colonies had been called to meet at Albany. The objects had in view were twofold: first to renew the treaty with the Iroquois confederacy, and secondly, to stir up the colonial authorities to some sort of concerted action against the French. The colonists had become convinced of a disposition on the part of the Iroquois to go over to the enemy. The recent reverses had encouraged the Indians to renounce their alliance with the English. It was clear that something must be done speedily or the flag of England could never be borne into the vast regions west of the Alleghanies.

The Albany Congress was not wanting in great abilities. No such venerable and dignified body of men had ever before assembled on the American continent. There were Hutchison of Massachusetts, Hopkins of Rhode Island, Franklin of Pennsylvania and others scarcely less distinguished. After a few days' consultation the Iroquois chieftains, though but half satisfied were induced to renew their treaty. They promised to remain faithful to the whites in the war with the French and then departed to their own villages.

AN AMERICAN UNION PROPOSED.

Already the notion of an American Union had appeared in the vision of the thoughtful. Could the American colonies be united in a single government? This question came before the Albany Convention. On the 10th of July Benjamin Franklin laid before the commissioners the draught of a general constitution. His vast and comprehensive mind, more than any other, had realized the true condition and wants of the country, and he perceived that the thing demanded for the safety and future development of the colonies was a central government for all. How else could revenues be raised, armies be organized, and the common welfare be provided for?

According to the proposed plan of union, Philadelphia was to be the capital. The city was central and might be more easily reached than any other, even by the delegates of New Hampshire and Georgia. It was thought and argued that such delegates could reach the seat of government in fifteen or twenty days! Slow-going old patriots! The chief executive of the new confederation was to be a governor-general appointed and supported by the King. The legislative authority was vested in a Congress, to be composed of delegates chosen triennially by the General Assemblies of the respective provinces. Each colony should be represented in proportion to its contributions to the federal government; but no colony should have fewer than two, or more than seven representatives in Congress.

As to the distribution of powers, the right of appointing all military officers and of

vetoing objectionable laws was lodged with the governor-general. On the other hand the appointment of civil officers, the raising of troops, the levying of taxes, the superintendence of Indian affairs, the regulation of commerce, and all the general duties of government should belong to Congress. This body was to convene once a year, to choose its own officers, and remain in session not longer than six weeks. Franklin's plan contained no provision respecting the establishment of a general judiciary for the colonies.

Copies of this constitution were at once transmitted to the several colonial capitals, and were everywhere received with disfavor. Nothing could more clearly illustrate the views and dispositions of the fathers at the middle of the eighteenth century than the reasons which were assigned for the non-acceptance of Franklin's constitution. In Connecticut the paper was rejected. In Massachusetts it was opposed, and in New York coldly and indifferently adopted. The chief objection urged against the instrument was the power of veto given to the governor-general. Some thought that the consolidation of the colonies was too close, and that the tendency was to reestablish despotism. A few were of opinion that it was a covert project of the Crown to regain a lost ascendancy over the American Republics, and most were of opinion that the principles of Democracy would be endangered and local liberty destroyed by the establishment of a central government. Nor did the new constitution fare any better in the mother country. The English Board of Trade rejected it with disdain, saying that the forward Americans were trying to make a government of their own!

By this time it had been discerned in England that the interests of the British Crown in America were seriously imperilled. It was clear that the French must be repelled from the countries west of the Alleghanies or the better parts of the continent would be lost to English rule. It was determined to send at once a British army to America, to accept the service of such provincial troops as the colonies might be able to furnish, and to repel the aggressions of France along the western border.

As yet, however, there had been no declaration of war. The ministers of France and England kept assuring each other of their peaceable intentions; but Louis XV. took care to send three thousand soldiers to Canada, and the British Government ordered General Edward Braddock to proceed to America with two regiments of regulars. The latter having arrived in the colonies met the governors in a conference at Alexandria, Virginia, and the plans of a campaign against the French were discussed and adopted.* On the last of May, 1755, Braddock set out from Cumberland to recapture Fort Du Quesne from the French.



BATTLE GROUND OF FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, 1755.

BATTLE BEFORE DU QUESNE AND DEATH OF BRADDOCK.

The expedition was undertaken with full confidence and great spirit. The advance was made during the month of June, and by the 8th of July the English vanguard had reached a point within twelve miles of the position of the French. On the following day

* The old house in Alexandria in which Braddock met the colonial governors is still preserved *in statu quo*. The room in which the conference was held is shown to visitors, and the traveller is able by imagination to restore the scene of a hundred and thirty-seven years ago. Perhaps no other American house of the epoch of the French and Indian war is better preserved than this old wooden hotel which was used by Braddock as his headquarters at the time of his arrival in America.

the English march was continued down the left bank of the Monongahela, and at noon Braddock crossed the stream near the confluence of Turtle creek. Thus far he had noticed no signs of the presence of the enemy.

The advance was now along a narrow road through the forest. Colonel Thomas Gage was in command of the vanguard. The country was uneven and thickly wooded. On either hand was a dense undergrowth of bramble and thicket; rocks and ravines; a hill on the right and a dry hollow on the left. A few guides led the advance, and some feeble flanking parties had been thrown out. In the rear came the general with the main division of the army, the artillery and the baggage. All at once a quick and heavy fire was heard in front. For the French and Indians, believing themselves unable to hold Fort Du Quesne, had gone forth and laid an ambuscade for the English. The place selected was a woody ravine, well adapted to protect those who were concealed in ambush, and to entrap the approaching army. The unsuspecting British marched directly into the net.

The battle began with a panic. The English, unable to see the enemy, fired constantly, but at random. The French perceived at once the success of their plan and the manifest confusion of the invading army. Braddock hurried to the front, and rallied his men; but it was all in vain. They stood huddled together like sheep. In a short time the



SCENE OF BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT,
1755.

forest was strewn with British dead. Out of eighty-two officers, twenty-six were killed. Of all the aids, only Colonel Washington remained to distribute orders. It was evident that the French and Indians in ambush were coolly taking aim and shooting down the officers and men at will. Of the privates, seven hundred and fourteen had fallen. Braddock himself was mortally wounded. A retreat began at once, and Washington with all that remained of the Virginian rangers covered the flight of the army. The disaster was complete, overwhelming, irremediable.

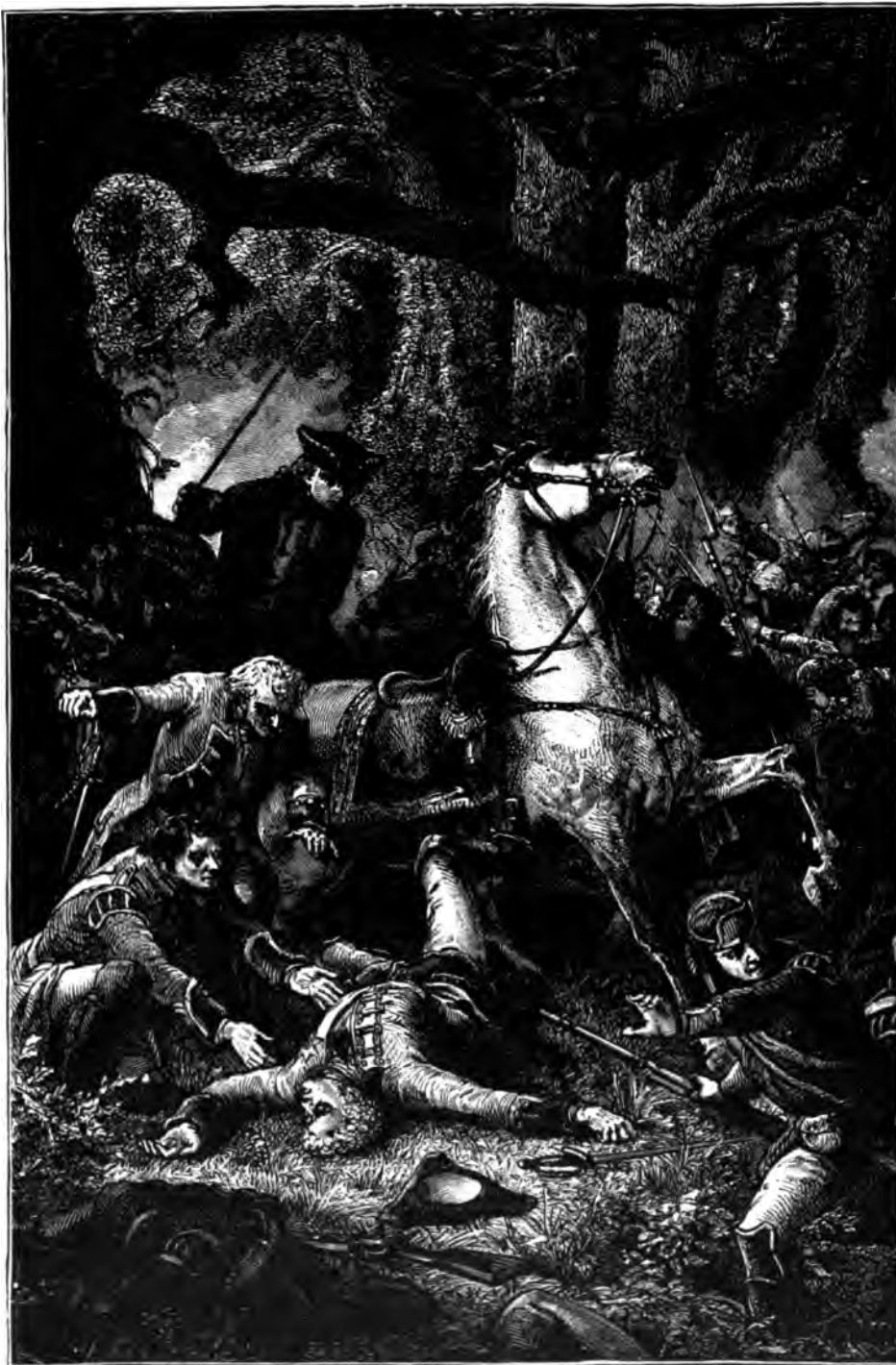
It appears that the French and Indians were surprised at their own victory. The native chiefs on the next day returned to Fort Du Quesne, clad in the laced coats of the British officers. The savages after their manner had despoiled the dead of the battlefield, and left them unburied. The dying Braddock was borne along in the train of the fugitives. On the evening of the fourth day he expired, and was buried near Dunbar's camp. When the fugitives reached that place, the confusion and alarm were greater than ever. The artillery, baggage and public stores were destroyed and a hasty retreat begun, first to Fort Cumberland, and afterwards to Philadelphia. The failure and ruin of the expedition could hardly have been more complete and irretrievable.

EXILE OF THE ACADIANS.

The reader will readily recall the conquest of Port Royal and Nova Scotia by the English. Though the authority of England was fully established in place of that of France, the French population continued as before greatly to outnumber their conquerors. The general result of the campaign had been to establish a British military occupation. When Braddock met the colonial governors at Alexandria, it was urged that the new expedition against Acadia would be necessary, in case of hostilities, in order to overawe the French people and maintain British authority. With this end in view, an expedition was organized under Colonel Monckton, and in May of 1755 the squadron sailed with three thousand troops from Boston for the Bay of Fundy.

The French had in the province two fortresses, called Beau-Sejour and Gaspereau. The commandant, De Vergor, had no intimation of the approach of the English until the squadron sailed into the bay and anchored before the walls of Beau-Sejour. On the 3d of June, 1755, the English forces effected a landing and made their way across Messagouche creek to begin the siege of the fortress, but no siege was necessary. Fear and confusion prevailed among the garrison, and no successful resistance could be offered. Beau-Sejour capitulated and was named Fort Cumberland. The whole of Nova Scotia was overrun in a brief campaign and brought under dominion of the English flag.

Although this conquest had been thus easily effected, the French inhabitants still greatly outnumbered the English. Governor Lawrence determined, therefore, to bring about a different state of circumstances by driving the inhabitants into banishment. In the first place an oath



DEATH OF BRADDOCK.

of allegiance was demanded, and then the surrender of all the firearms and boats belonging to the French. British ships were then made ready to carry the French peasants into exile. The country about the isthmus was ruthlessly laid waste and the flying people driven into the larger towns. Wherever a considerable number could be got together they were compelled to go on shipboard. At the village of Grand Prè more



ISTHMUS OF ACADIA.

than nineteen hundred people were driven into the boats at the point of the bayonet. Wives and children, old men and mothers, the sick and the infirm, all shared the common fate. More than three thousand of the Acadians were carried away by the British squadron and scattered in helplessness and starvation among the English colonies as far south as Louisiana. Thus in complete disaster to the cause of France ended the second campaign which had been planned at Alexandria.

The third expedition outlined at the same conference was to be conducted by Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, against the French at Fort Niagara. Early in August the governor at the head of two thousand men set out from Albany. Arriving at Oswego the commander spent four weeks in preparing boats. Then tempests prevailed and sickness broke out in the camp. The Indians deserted the standard of the English, and late in October the provincial forces led by Shirley marched homeward without striking a blow.

THE ATTACK ON FORT EDWARD.

The fourth expedition had been intrusted by Braddock to General William Johnson, of New York. The object of the movement was to capture Crown Point and drive the French from Lake Champlain. Early in August Johnson, at the head of his forces, reached the Hudson above Albany and built Fort Edward. Thence he proceeded to Lake George and established a military camp. To this place the artillery and stores of the expedition were brought forward. Meanwhile Count Dieskau, commandant of the French at Crown Point, advanced with fourteen hundred French, Canadians and Indians against Fort Edward. General Johnson



EXILE OF THE ACADIANS FROM GRAND PRÈ.

sent Colonel Williams and Hendrick, chief of the Mohawks, with twelve hundred men to the relief of the fort. On the 8th of September Williams's regiment and the Mohawks were ambushed by Dieskau's forces and driven back with loss to Johnson's camp.

The victorious Canadians and French regulars followed and attacked the English

position. A severe engagement ensued. For five hours the battle was incessant. Nearly all of Dieskau's men were killed. At last the English troops made a sortie and completed the rout of the enemy. Dieskau was mortally wounded. Two hundred and sixteen of the English were killed, but the victory was complete. General Johnson proceeded to build on the site of his camp Fort William Henry. In the meantime the French fell back, but fortified Ticonderoga. Such was the condition of affairs at the close of the first year of the war.

With the beginning of 1756 the command-in-chief of the English forces was given to Governor Shirley. Virginia relied mostly on her own provincials, whom she placed under command of Washington and sent into the valley of the Shenandoah to repel the French and Indians. The Pennsylvanians chose Franklin for their colonel, built a fort on the Lehigh, and made a successful campaign. The expeditions which were planned for the year embraced the conquest of Quebec and the capture of Forts Frontenac, Toronto, Niagara and Du Quesne.

Meanwhile the British government took up the cause and sent out two battalions of regulars to New York. These arrived in the spring of 1756. The Earl of Loudoun was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces in America. General Abercrombie was second in rank. On the 17th of May in this year Great Britain, after nearly two years of actual hostilities, involving campaigns and conquests and loss of life and armies, made a formal declaration of war against France.

In July Lord Loudoun took command of the colonial army. After the death of Dieskau the Marquis of Montcalm succeeded to the command of the French, and on his first campaign besieged and captured Oswego. Six vessels of war, three hundred boats, a hundred and twenty cannon and three chests of money were the fruits of his victory. During this summer the Delaware Indians of western Pennsylvania broke into hostility and killed or captured more than a thousand people. In August Colonel Armstrong at the head of three hundred volunteers marched against the Indian town of Kittaning, and on the 8th of December routed the savages with great losses. The village was burned and the spirit of the Indians completely broken.

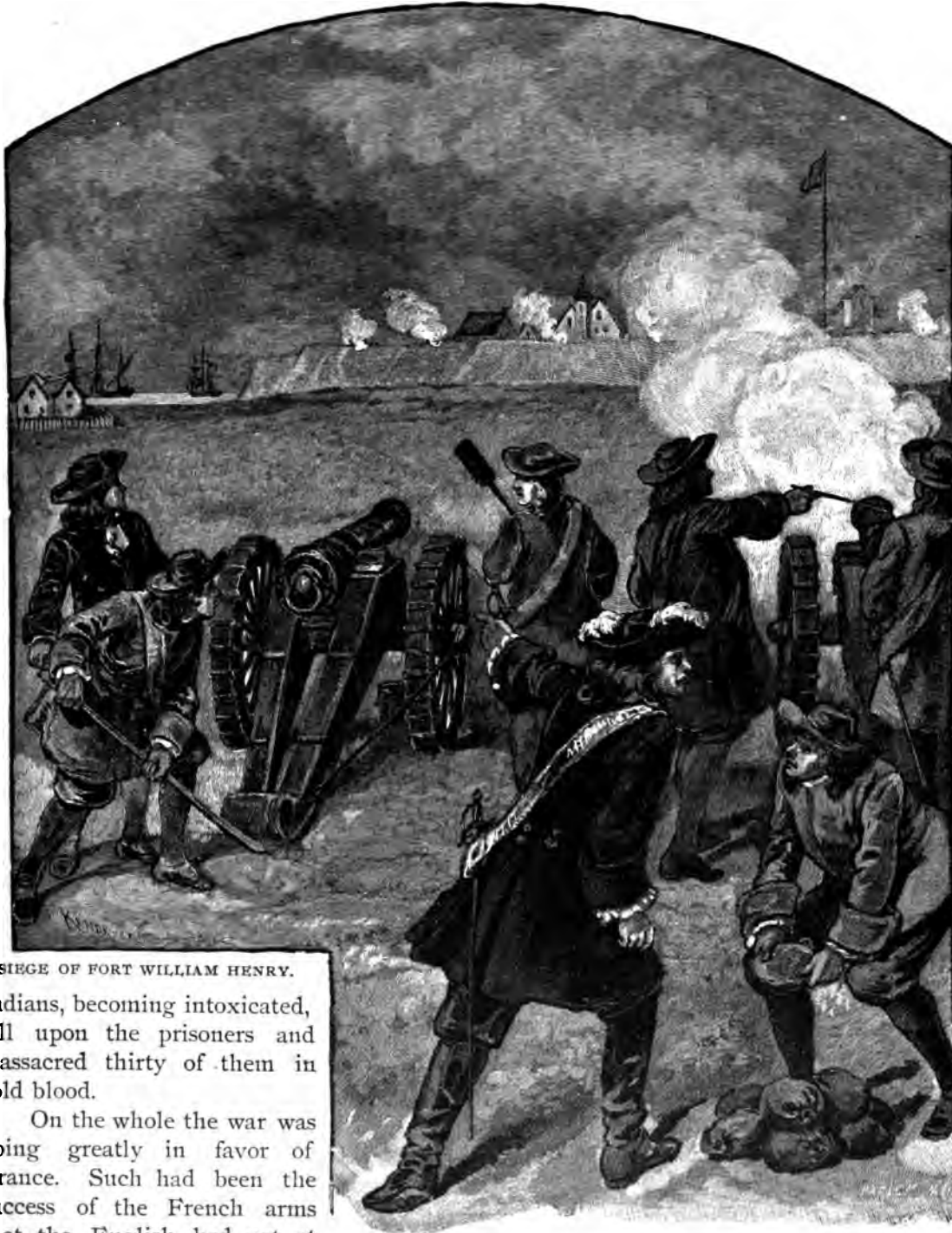
STRANGE INACTION OF THE ENGLISH.

Lord Loudoun planned for the summer of 1757 the conquest of Louisburg. He had under his command an army of six thousand regulars and abundant resources in the way of supply and transportation. His fleet left New York on the proposed expedition on the 20th of June and came to Halifax where the commander was joined by Admiral Holbourn with a fleet of sixteen men-of-war. Five thousand additional troops fresh from the armies of Europe were on board the squadron; but Loudoun with amazing incompetency, instead of proceeding at once to Cape Breton, tarried a while at Halifax,* and then sailed back to New York without striking a blow or even seriously attempting to accomplish the work in which he was engaged.

If paralysis seemed to rest upon the English commander it was very different with the French. The Marquis of Montcalm collected for his campaign of this year seven thousand regulars, Canadians and Indians. With this force he advanced into New York for the capture of Fort William Henry. This stronghold was held by five hundred men under Colonel Monro. For six days the French besieged the fort until the ammunition of the garrison was expended and nothing remained but to capitulate. Honorable terms were granted by

* It was here that Lord Loudoun had a large area of the cultivable lands about Halifax planted in onions lest his men *might* take the scurvy!

the captors. On the 9th of August they took possession of the fortress. Among the supplies of the English was a quantity of spirits. In spite of the exertions of Montcalm the



SIEGE OF FORT WILLIAM HENRY.

Indians, becoming intoxicated, fell upon the prisoners and massacred thirty of them in cold blood.

On the whole the war was going greatly in favor of France. Such had been the success of the French arms that the English had not at this juncture a single hamlet left in the whole basin of the St. Lawrence. The same was true in the west. Every cabin where English was spoken had been swept out of

the Ohio Valley. At the close of 1757 France possessed *twenty times* as much territory in America as did England and five times as much as England and Spain together!

The ill-success of England thus far in the war was doubtless attributable to the inefficiency of the government, resulting, as it did, in the appointment of incompetent commanders and inadequate preparations for conquering the French in America. In 1757, however, a change occurred in British politics and William Pitt was placed at the head of the ministry. A new spirit was at once diffused in the management and conduct of the war. Loudoun was deposed from the command of the American army. General Abercrombie was made his successor, but the main reliance was placed on an efficient corps of subordinate commanders. Admiral Boscawen was put in charge of the fleet. General Amherst was given a division. Young Lord Howe was appointed to rank next to Abercrombie. James Wolfe, also in his youth, was made brigadier, and Colonel Richard Montgomery was put at the head of a regiment.



CAPTURE OF LOUISBURG AND ASSAULT ON TICONDEROGA.

The campaigns planned for 1758 were three in number. The first was to undertake the capture of Louisburg; the second to reduce Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and the third to recapture Fort Du Quesne from the French. In the latter part of May General Amherst arrived at Halifax with an army of ten thousand men. In the brief space of six days the British fleet was anchored before Louisburg. Soon afterwards three French vessels were burned in the harbor. The town was bombarded until it was reduced to a heap of ruins. On the 28th of July Louisburg, together with Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island, were surrendered to Great Britain. The garrisons, numbering about six thousand men, became prisoners of war. The expedition had been speedily crowned with signal success for the English.

Meanwhile General Abercrombie with fifteen thousand men moved forward in the beginning of July against Ticonderoga. On the morning of the 6th of the month the English fell in with the French picket line and a severe skirmish ensued in which the French were overwhelmed and Lord Howe was killed in the onset. On the morning of the 8th the English army was arranged for an assault on Ticonderoga. The country round about was broken and unfavorable for military operations, but obstacles were overcome and a desperate battle was fought continuing for four hours, until at six o'clock in the evening the English were finally repulsed. The loss on the side of the assailants amounted in killed and wounded to nineteen hundred and sixteen. In no battle of the Revolution did the British have so large a force engaged or meet so terrible a loss.



RUINS OF TICONDEROGA.

With the failure of the assault the English army retreated to Fort George. Soon afterwards a division of three thousand men under command of Colonel Bradstreet was sent against Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario. This movement of the English was attended with complete success. Fort Frontenac was only able to endure a siege of two days' duration. The fortress was taken and demolished. The capture of the place was regarded by the English as a counterpoise to their failure at Ticonderoga.

WONDERFUL COURAGE OF MAJOR STRABO.

About the same time Major Strabo harassed the enemy by several bold strokes and sudden descents upon their shipping in the St. Lawrence. One of his desperate enterprises was the capture of a French sloop that was conveying a company of Indians and a large quantity of supplies to Quebec. At the time of this undertaking Strabo was marching down the river on the New York side with a company of ten men, when seeing a French schooner in the offing he signalled it to land. The officer in charge suspecting no treachery



WONDERFUL EXPLOIT OF MAJOR STRABO.

came ashore and was generously treated by Strabo with some choice rum; but at an auspicious moment he gave a sign at which his men rushed out of their concealment and in a trice made the officer and his men prisoners. Tying them and leaving them on shore, Strabo boarded the schooner and set out in pursuit of a French sloop en route for Quebec. Being a master of the French tongue Strabo had no difficulty, after approaching near the vessel, in convincing the commander that he was bearing a message to Ralfe at Quebec.

Under pretence that he desired to communicate confidentially with the sloop's officer he was permitted to draw along side. In the next moment his men fired on the exposed crew and lashing the schooner to the sloop boarded the prize so quickly that no time was given for defence. Strabo drove nearly all the Indians into the waters, killed most of the crew and then setting fire to the schooner he sailed away on the sloop with all its stores and brought her into the port of Louisburg.

The third expedition of this year was entrusted to General Forbes. His division numbered nine thousand men and his part in the campaign was the capture of Fort Du Quesne. The Virginia provincials were again placed under command of Colonel Washington. The main body of the army moved slowly; but Major Grant with the advance pressed on in the direction of Fort Du Quesne. When within a few miles of that place, he ran carelessly into an ambuscade in which he lost a third of his forces. But it was not to be expected that the game which the French and Indians had so successfully played with Braddock could be repeated.

Washington now took the lead and on the 24th of November reached a point within ten miles of the fort. During that night the garrison of Du Quesne, apprised of the approach of the British army, took the alarm, burned the fortress, embarked in boats and dropped down the Ohio. On the 25th the victorious English marched in, raised the banner of St. George and named the place Pittsburgh. A summary of the movements of the year 1758 shows that in two of the principal campaigns the English had been overwhelmingly successful, while in the third the result was a drawn battle, the French being victorious before Ticonderoga and losing on the other hand their fortress and garrison at Frontenac.

CAPTURE OF NIAGARA.

General Amherst now succeeded Abercrombie in command of the American army. Great Britain became terribly in earnest in the prosecution of the war against the French.

A bloody incident of this year (1759) transpired in the vicinity of Fort Miller, on the Hudson River six miles from Schuylerville. A party of soldiers from the garrison went fishing in a clear stream of water eight miles from the fort. While thus engaged they were attacked by a band of Indians who were in concealment in the thick covert on the bank. Being wholly unprepared for resistance the soldiers were panic stricken at the first fire and nine were killed who were afterwards scalped and their bodies left lying where they fell. On account of this fatal occurrence the stream has ever since been called "Bloody Run."



BLOODY RUN.

By the beginning of summer, 1759, the British and colonial forces under arms numbered nearly fifty thousand men. On the other side the entire French army scarcely exceeded seven thousand. Three campaigns were planned for the year. General Prideaux was appointed to lead an expedition against Niagara. The commander-in-chief at the head of the main division was to proceed against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. General Wolfe, with his contingent was sent up the St. Lawrence for the capture of Quebec.

The first expedition was crowned with success. General Prideaux succeeded in mid-summer in the investment of Fort Niagara. The French commander, D'Aubry, with twelve hundred men, came to the relief of the fort. On the 15th of the month, Prideaux was

killed by the bursting of a gun, and the command devolved on Sir William Johnson. On the 24th, the French army came in sight, and a bloody battle was fought in which the French were completely routed. On the following day Niagara capitulated, and the garrison to the number of six hundred became prisoners of war.

The central division, numbering eleven thousand men, marched against Ticonderoga.



GEN. JAMES WOLFE.

The army was debarked before the fortress on the 22d of July; but the French did not dare to stand against such overwhelming numbers. After four days the garrison, having partly destroyed the fortifications, abandoned Ticonderoga, and retreated to Crown Point. On the 31st of July they deserted this place also, and fell back to Isle-aux-Noix, in the river Sorel.

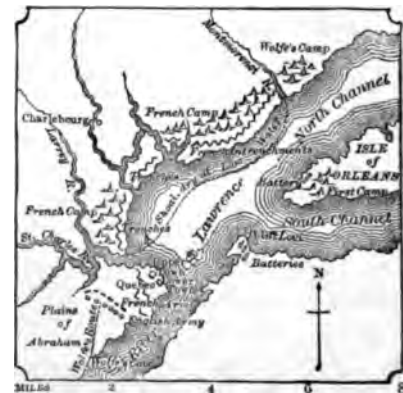
The third division of the British forces was led forward by General Wolfe to the St. Lawrence. In the early spring he began the ascent of that river. His division consisted of nearly eight thousand men, assisted by a fleet of forty-four vessels. On the 27th of June, Wolfe reached the Isle of Orleans, four miles below Quebec, where the English camp was pitched at the upper end of the island. The fleet gave the English command of the river and the southern bank was undefended. On the second night after Wolfe's arrival, he sent General Monckton to seize Point Levi. From this position the lower town was soon

reduced to ruins and the upper town much injured; but the fortress held out and some other plan of attack had to be invented.

BATTLE OF QUEBEC.

General Wolfe in the early part of July crossed the St. Lawrence and encamped near the mouth of the Montmorenci. This stream was fordable at low water, and the English undertook to force a crossing in the face of the French, but were repulsed with serious losses. Wolfe was obliged to withdraw his camp, and again change his plans. He now fell into a fever, and for some time was confined to his tent. A council was held, and the young general proposed a second assault, but was overruled. It was then determined to ascend the St. Lawrence by night, and if possible gain the Plains of Abraham in the rear of the city.

The lower camp of the English was accordingly broken up, and on the 6th of September the troops were conveyed from that position to Point Levi. In the next place Wolfe succeeded in transferring his army without the knowledge of the French to a point several miles up the river. He then examined the



VICINITY OF QUEBEC, 1759.

northern bank of the St. Lawrence, and discovered a pathway up the steep cliffs leading to the plains in the rear of Quebec.

On the night of the 12th of September the English forces again embarked and dropped down the river to the place now called Wolfe's Cove. It was with the greatest difficulty that the soldiers, supporting themselves by the bushes and rocks, clambered up the precipice. The Canadian guard on the summit was easily dispersed, and in the dawn of morning Wolfe marshalled his army for battle. Montcalm was in amazement when he heard the news. The French forces were hastily brought from the trenches on the Montmorenci and thrown between Quebec and the English.

The battle was begun without delay. At the first there was a cannonade of an hour's duration, and then Montcalm, with his inadequate forces attempting to turn the English flank, was beaten back. The Canadian provincials and their Indian allies were soon routed. The French regulars wavered, and were thrown into confusion. Wolfe led his army in person. Early in the engagement he was wounded in the wrist, but pressed on without attention to his injury. Again he was struck, but still kept his place at the head of the column. At the moment of victory a third ball pierced his breast, and he sank to the earth. "They run," * said the attendant who bent over him. "Who run?" was the response. "The French are flying everywhere," replied the officer. "Do they run already? Then I die happy," said the expiring hero.

Montcalm shared a like fate. Attempting to rally his regiments he was struck with a ball and fell mortally wounded. "Shall I survive?" said he to his surgeon. "Only a few hours at most," answered the attendant. "So much the better," replied the heroic Frenchman; "I shall not live to witness the surrender of Quebec!"

Five days after the battle the city capitulated and an English garrison took possession of the citadel. France soon made an unsuccessful effort to recover her loss. In the spring of 1760 a French army gained a position a few miles west of Quebec and the English were driven within the defences, but the city was soon reinforced and the assailants were beaten back. In the year following the capture by Wolfe, General Amherst conducted a successful expedition against Montreal, the last important post of France in the valley of the St. Lawrence. On the 8th of September the place was taken and the whole of Canada passed under the dominion of England.

A REAPPORTIONMENT OF THE COUNTRY.

Thus with the great campaigns of 1759-60 the French empire in America was subverted. New France passed away. The result was reached by the determined and powerful support which Great Britain gave to her American interests and by the feeble, wavering and unworthy efforts of France to support her own cause in the New World. There came to pass a vast disparity between the contending parties. At one time the English and American provincials were as twenty to one to the French and at nearly the same time the American territorial possessions of France were as twenty to one to those of her rival. There was

* It is narrated that while the English fleet on this memorable night were silently gliding down the St. Lawrence under the dark shadow of the overhanging banks the brave and imaginative Wolfe, standing in the bow of his boat and discovering with the keen instincts of a prophet the probabilities of his fate, repeated over and over to his companions the stanza from Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, which had been published only a short time before in England :

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

thus on the side of England the concentration of resources and power and on the side of France the dissipation of her diminished energies over a vast and indefensible region of country.

But while the vicissitudes of war favored the English in all their latter conflicts with the French other harassments vexed the settlers in sections not within the immediate territory in dispute. In the spring of 1760 the Cherokee Indians of eastern Tennessee arose against the English and besieged Fort London which was forced to capitulate, but no sooner was the garrison disarmed than the Indians in violation of the terms of surrender massacred the greater number and carried off the others into captivity. To punish the savages for this



THE DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.

atrocities Colonels Grant and Montgomery were sent against them, who after a vigorous campaign compelled the Indians to sue for peace.

PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY AND ATTACK ON DETROIT.

But after the overthrow of the French it devolved upon the English to take actual possession of all the territory bordering on the Great Lakes and Major Roberts was accordingly despatched by General Amherst with two hundred rangers to receive the surrender of the outposts. In this duty Major Roberts met with no resistance and by the close of 1760 the English flag waved above all the forts along the lakes. No sooner, however, had the occupation been accomplished when the English began a system of petty persecutions upon the Indians, whose violent resentment was speedily aroused, excited, as it was, not more by their ill-treatment than by the instigations of the French, who though conquered became

even more bitterly hostile in their feelings towards the English. In the summer of 1761 the Senecas and Wyandots conspired to capture Detroit by treachery and massacre the garrison, but the plot was revealed and thwarted by the commandant, Colonel Campbell. Soon after another attempt was made, but likewise failed through timely warning given by a friendly Indian. Thereafter peace prevailed for a while though at no time was security felt, the ugly temper of the Indians being indicated by mutterings of discontent which gave constant fear of an outbreak.

Towards the close of 1762 Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, a brave and sagacious warrior, conceived the design of uniting all the tribes from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi into one confederacy and hurling them in resistless bodies against the English by attacking simultaneously all the forts and settlements. The 7th of May, 1763, was appointed to begin the general massacre, but at the last moment the tribes refused, through rivalries and old enmities, to act in concert and ultimate failure was the consequence, though the direct result was terribly disastrous.

Pontiac reserved for himself the most dangerous task of capturing Detroit and butchering the garrison and so adroitly did he perfect the details of his horrible plot that their execution must have

proved successful but for the timely exposure of the conspiracy. On the day preceding the time set for the treacherous and murderous act an Ojibway girl visited the fort bearing a pair of moccasins which she designed as a present for Major Gladwyn, the commandant. By this subterfuge she gained his presence and when the two were alone she revealed to that officer the particulars of the plot. The major lost no time in



OJIBWAY MAIDEN EXPOSING THE CONSPIRACY.

putting the fort in the most thorough state of defence and when Pontiac and his band sought to put their treacherous plans into execution on the following day they confronted a strong force of English fully prepared to receive them, every citizen as well as soldier being drawn up in line of battle.

Pontiac withdrew from the fort mortified at the failure of his plans, but unwilling to abandon his purpose he invested Detroit with nearly two thousand Indians and entered upon a siege of the place. Some desperate sorties and counter assaults characterized the siege, in which the Indians lost heavily and after three days of fruitless effort to burn (in which they partially succeeded) or reduce the place they withdrew to join other bands of Indians who were doing great execution elsewhere. Under the attacks which followed and were led by Pontiac every fort in the west except Niagara, Detroit and Fort Pitt was captured by the Indians, who in nearly every instance massacred the garrisons.

Though the fighting on land between France and England practically ceased with the capture of Quebec and the surrender of the lake forts the conflict continued on the sea with almost invariable success to the English arms until the 10th of February, 1863, when a treaty of peace was made between the two nations at Paris by which all the French possessions in North America eastward of the Mississippi from its source to the River Iberville and thence through Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain to the Gulf of Mexico were surrendered to Great Britain. It was the transfer of an empire. At the same time Spain, with whom England had been at war, ceded East and West Florida to the English crown. As reciprocal with this provision France was constrained by Great Britain to make a cession to Spain of all that vast territory west of the Mississippi known as the Province of Louisiana. It thus happened that the Spanish possessions on our continent were vastly extended, while those of France were extinguished. The French king lost his entire empire in the New World and England became dominant over all east of the Mississippi. West of the Father of Waters Spain took all for her own.

As yet the question had not publicly risen of the independence of the English States in North America; but already, before the treaty of Paris, namely, in 1775, John Adams, at that time a young school teacher in Connecticut wrote this in his diary: "In another century, all Europe will not be able to subdue us. The only way to keep us from setting up for ourselves is to disunite us." Significant words these were, containing in them the germs of the great struggle which was already at the door, which, indeed, had already begun, but of the presence of which neither the British government nor the American colonists were as yet aware.

The French and Indian War—so called in the phraseology of American history—was one of the most important in the annals of mankind. By this conflict it was decided that the decaying institutions of the middle ages should not prevail in the countries west of the Atlantic and that the powerful language, laws and liberties of the English-speaking race should be planted forever in the vast domains of the New World.



CHAPTER XII.

CAUSES OF THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.



As we have said, the war of American Independence—the Revolution so-called—by which the American colonies were detached from their allegiance to the mother country and at length made a nation, began with those conditions and circumstances which first brought the Americans into union of effort and purpose. In the preceding chapter we have seen how the colonists discovered in themselves the elements of unity and strength. The provincial soldiers soon found out that the British regulars were not superior to themselves in battle—that the discipline of the regulars from the mother country was compensated by the knowledge which the Americans possessed of the manners and tactics of the enemy.

To the British regulars the new arena of war in America was full of unknown perils and pitfalls. The continent was an expanse of woods and mountains and rivers. The Indian method of warfare was unheard of and at first despised. The Braddock campaign showed clearly that the provincials, whose bad reputation with the British officers had become traditional, were really the most available contingent of the army.

Many things tended in the sixth and seventh decades of the century to develop a national consciousness in America. Nations are even as men. They have their periods of childhood and adolescence. At length, with growth and development, consciousness appears. True, it were difficult to discover from what sources in the individual life personal consciousness at length arises; and so in the case of nations. For the present it suffices to point out the fact that the time at which we have now arrived in American history was the time when consciousness appeared—consciousness of individuality, of strength, of personal will and ultimately of independent right.

There is a great popular error in underestimating the character and significance of the French and Indian War. As matters of fact the conflict was of longer duration than the Revolution proper. The forces engaged—the English forces—were greater in numbers and equipment than were at any time seen in America during the war of Independence. The battles fought, though not more numerous, were on the whole more determined and much more bloody. As has been said, the losses in the battle of Ticonderoga, almost unknown as it is in the popular memory, were much more severe and destructive of life than any single conflict of the Revolution.

A REMARKABLE CHANGE OF POLITICAL FEELING.

We are here to take up the narrative after the treaty of Paris and to note the causes which led to the rebellion and final independence of the American colonies. After the

treaty of peace there was a brief period of recuperation. The British armies were withdrawn from America to be used abroad. It is now clear in the retrospect that the relations between the soldiers of the colonies and the foreign regulars had never been gracious or agreeable. The British officers were disliked and in some instances the dislike rose—or sank—to the level of hatred.

It is one of the strange circumstances of the history of these times that the French, the enemy with whom the American colonists were for several years engaged in bloody war, appear not to have been so seriously disliked as the British, under whose patronage and by whose overwhelming power and alliance the war was brought to a successful end. We shall see with astonishment how in the course of a very few years all the conditions were reversed and a new sentiment created by which the French were converted into friends and the British made enemies—a state of feeling and opinion which much more than a century of time has not availed to obliterate.

The epoch upon which we now enter was one in which existing institutions were rapidly transformed. Many old things passed away. A new man and a new society were born out of a sort of fruitful anarchy, as if from a soil long prepared with the care of the husbandman. There was a civil and social revolt of the people against the existing order, and in particular against the institution of monarchy which had so long intrenched itself as the prevailing political form among the western nations.

Our Revolution of 1776 was one of the leading incidents of a large and world-wide movement which has not yet by any means reached its limits. It is important that we should note with some care at least the more immediate causes of our conflict with the mother country. Doubtless the first and most general of these was the claim and exercise of the right of arbitrary government by Great Britain, which "right" was denied and resisted by the colonies. At the first the enunciation of such a right on the part of the mother country was a matter of little importance. The claim was theoretical rather than practical. The colonies had not yet reached the stage of autonomy, but when the English government began to force the principle in practice upon full-grown States having more than two hundred thousand inhabitants within their borders, and lying at a distance of three thousand miles from the mother country, the colonies resisted.

The questions involved in the coming controversy began to be openly discussed about the time of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, and from that period until the outbreak of hostilities in 1775 each year witnessed, in some form, a renewal of the agitation. But there were also many subordinate causes tending to bring on a conflict. First among these may be named the influence of France, which was constantly exerted so as to excite a spirit of resistance in the American colonies. Doubtless the French king would never have agreed to the treaty of 1763, by which Canada was ceded to Great Britain, had it not been with the ulterior hope and aim of securing American Independence.

THE FORESHADOWING OF REBELLION.

It was the theory of France that by giving up Canada to the other English colonies in America, the whole group would become so strong as to renounce their allegiance to the crown. Such a result was feared by the British government. More than once it was openly proposed in Parliament to recede Canada to France for the avowed purpose of checking the ominous growth of the American States. "There, now," said the French statesman Vergennes, when the treaty of 1763 was signed, "we have arranged matters for an American rebellion in which England will lose her empire in the west!" Such was the

prescience of the shrewd politicians of Western Europe who played at dice with our republican commonwealths in the seventh decade of the eighteenth century.

A second cause leading to our war for independence may be discovered in the natural disposition and inherited character of the colonists. They were for the most part republicans in political sentiment and dissenters in religion. The people of the home country were monarchists and high-churchmen. The American colonists had never seen the king who ruled them, or any king. The broad Atlantic lay between them and the British ministry. Their dealings for a century past and more with the royal officers had been such as to engender a dislike, not only for the officers themselves, but for the system of government which they represented. The people of America had not forgotten, could not well forget, the circumstances of hardship and abuse under which their ancestors had come to the New World. Moreover, for six generations the colonists had managed their own affairs. They had been accustomed to popular assemblies and to certain methods of conducting public business until the instinct of democratic management had become hereditary. The experiences of the French and Indian war had shown the Americans that their own best reliance in the day of trouble was themselves—that they were able to defend themselves and their country against aggression.

There was a natural evolution of public opinion in the colonies tending to independence. The more advanced thinkers came to believe that a complete separation from England was not only possible but desirable. The remark of young John Adams, recorded in his diary for 1755, has already been quoted on a former page. His opinion and the opinions of others like him were at first expressed only in private, then by hints in pamphlets and newspapers, and at last publicly and everywhere. It is needless to say, however, that ideas so radical and seemingly dangerous were accepted by the people at large very slowly, cautiously, reluctantly. Not until the war of the Revolution had actually begun could the majority of the colonists be brought to declare for independence.

THE POLITICAL CHARACTER OF GEORGE III.

Another subordinate cause of the conflict with the mother country was found in the personal character and political methods of the King, George III., who ascended the English throne in 1760, and who proved to be one of the worst monarchs of modern times. His notions of government were altogether despotic. He was by mental constitution a stubborn, thick-headed, stupid man, in whose mind the notion of human rights was almost wholly wanting. His beliefs and aphorisms were derived from the Middle Ages. It was well nigh impossible for him to conceive of a magnanimous public project or to appreciate the value and desirability of civil liberty. In his personal life he was a man of exemplary habits, not incapable of domestic affections and fidelity; but his public administration was as bad as any which Europe had seen since the death of Louis XIV. His reign of sixty years was as odious to patriotism as it was long in duration. It was a part of his public policy to employ only those who were the narrow-minded partisans of himself and his Tory ministry. The members of his cabinet and council were for the most part men as incompetent and illiberal as their king. With such a ruler and such a ministry it was not likely that the descendants of the Pilgrims in America would get on smoothly.

The more immediate cause of the Revolution, however, was the passage by Parliament of a series of acts destructive of colonial liberty. These acts were first opposed and then resisted by the colonies, and the attempt was made by Great Britain to enforce them, first with authority and then with the bayonet. The general question involved in these acts was that of taxation. It is a well-grounded principle of the English common law that the

subjects of the crown by their representatives in the House of Commons have the right of voting whatever taxes and customs are necessary for the support of the kingdom. It was but natural that this right should be claimed by the American colonists; for they were English subjects with the full rights of Englishmen.

With good reason the General Assemblies of the colonies urged that they, the Assemblies, held, out of the nature of the case, the same relation to the American people as the



George the Third King of Great Britain 1760

House of Commons held to the people of England. To this proposition the English ministers replied that Parliament, and not the colonial Assemblies, was the proper body to vote taxes in any and all parts of the British empire. "But we are not represented in Parliament," was the answer of the Americans; "the House of Commons may therefore justly assess taxes in England, but not in America." "Many of the towns, boroughs and shires in these British isles have no representatives in Parliament, and yet the Parliament taxes *them*," replied the ministers, now driven to sophistry. "If any of your towns, boroughs and shires are not represented in the House of Commons, they ought to be," was the American rejoinder, and there the argument

ended. It is easy for the reader to discover in this incipient controversy the elements of a profound dispute relative to the rights of local self-government and home-rule—a dispute which has not yet ceased to agitate and disturb the British empire.

SPECIFIC COMPLAINTS AGAINST ENGLAND.

Such were the essentials of the controversy between the colonies and the mother country. It is now proper to notice the principal parliamentary acts which the colonists complained of and resisted. The first of these was called the Importation Act. It was passed in the year 1733. The statute was itself a kind of supplement and revival of the

old Navigation Act of 1651. By the terms of the new law exorbitant duties were laid on all the sugar, molasses and rum imported into the colonies. The effect was, as a matter of course, to raise the price of these articles to the consumers, with the consequent discontent and distress which such measures always produce. At first the payment of the unreasonable customs was evaded by the merchants, and then the statute was openly set at naught, disobeyed and neglected as though it were not. In 1750 an act was passed forbidding the erection of iron works in America. The manufacture of steel was specially interdicted, and the felling of pines outside of law was made a misdemeanor under penalty.

All of these laws were at length disregarded, as they were from the first denounced by the people of the colonies as being unjust and tyrannical. In 1761 the question of these violated statutes was taken up and a strenuous effort was made to enforce the Importation Act. The colonial courts in America were directed to issue to the King's officers a kind of search-warrants called writs of assistance. With these in hand it was possible for petty constables to enter any and every place, searching for and seizing goods which were suspected of having evaded the duty. It was but natural that this proceeding should be resisted. At Salem and Boston the greatest excitement prevailed. The question of resistance was carried to the courts, and James Otis, an able and temperate man, pleaded eloquently for the right of the colonies, denouncing the parliamentary acts as contrary to the British constitution. The address of Otis was accepted as a masterly defence of the people, and the event produced a profound feeling throughout the colonies. Already there began to be hints of resistance by force of arms.

Two years after these events the English ministers again took up the question of enforcing the law which required the payment of duties on sugar, molasses and rum. The officers of the admiralty were directed to seize and confiscate all vessels engaged in the transportation of these articles except under certificate that the duties thereon had been paid. While this act was pending in Parliament and before a knowledge of its passage had reached Boston a great town-meeting was held in that city. The orator of the day was the patriot Samuel Adams. He produced a powerful argument, showing conclusively that under the British constitution taxation and representation are inseparable. Meanwhile vessels from the English navy, under direction of the admiralty, were sent to hover around the American harbors and enforce the provisions of the Importation Act. By these a great number of merchantmen bearing cargoes of sugar and spirits were seized, in so much that the colonial trade with the West Indies was almost destroyed.

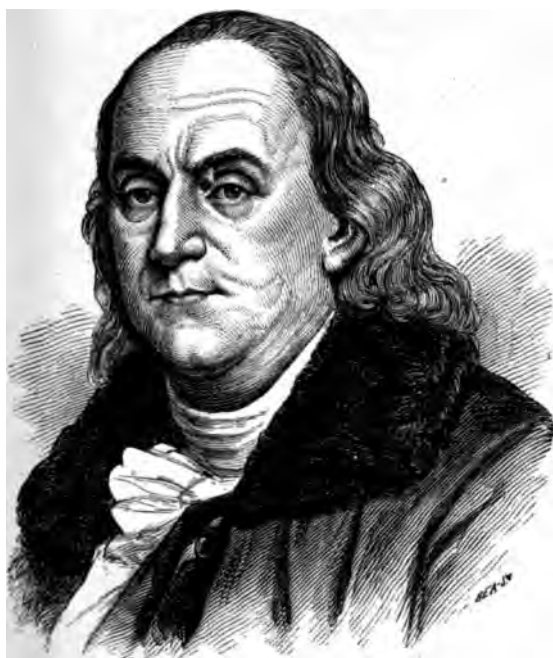
These events occupied public attention during the years 1763-'64. In the latter year was made in Parliament the first formal declaration of a purpose to tax the colonies. Sir George Grenville was at this time Prime Minister of England. By his influence on the 10th of March, 1764, a resolution was adopted in the House of Commons declaring that it would be proper to charge certain stamp duties on the American colonies. It was announced that a bill embodying this principle would be prepared by the ministers and brought forward at the next session of Parliament.

EXCITEMENT PRODUCED BY THE STAMP ACT.

The news of this measure was to the Americans like a spark in a magazine of combustibles. Universal excitement and indignation prevailed throughout the colonies. Political meetings became the order of the day. Orators were in great demand. The newspapers teemed with arguments against the proposed enactment. Resolutions were passed in opposition at almost every town-meeting. Formal remonstrances were drawn up and forwarded to the King and Parliament. Some of the ablest men of the colonies were appointed agents and sent to London in the hope of preventing the passage of such a law.

The reader may be curious to know by what argument a British Commoner of 1764 would defend the provisions of the Stamp Act. It was thus: The French and Indian war had just been concluded with a treaty of peace. Great Britain had been at large expense and had incurred heavy debt. The war had been fought for the English colonies in America, in their defence against the French, for the extension of their territorial domains beyond the mountains. It would be just and right that the expense of the war should be borne by the colonies. The debt incurred might be properly and equitably provided for by levying stamp duties on the business of the colonists.

To all this the Americans replied that England ought to defend her colonies for the reason that they were hers and for motives of humanity; that in the prosecution of the late war the colonies had aided Great Britain as much as she had aided them; that the American provincials had devoted their treasure and shed their blood in that cause which was to secure the supremacy of the British crown in the vast region east of the Mississippi; that the re-



BENJ. FRANKLIN.

cent cession of Canada had amply compensated England for her losses in the war; and finally that it was not the payment of money which the colonists dreaded, but the loss of their liberties. It was a principle for which they contended — the principle of representation and tax. The Americans were not represented in Parliament, and Parliament therefore should not tax them either directly or indirectly. To all this was added with some acerbity that in case of *another* war the Americans would fight their own battle. In the light of the retrospect and the impartial judgment of history it is easy to see that the American argument had in it a force, a cogency, an element of truth and justice for which we should look in vain in the reasonings of the British ministry.

At the beginning of the controversy in the British Parliament, the cause of the Americans was defended by the celebrated William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. But with

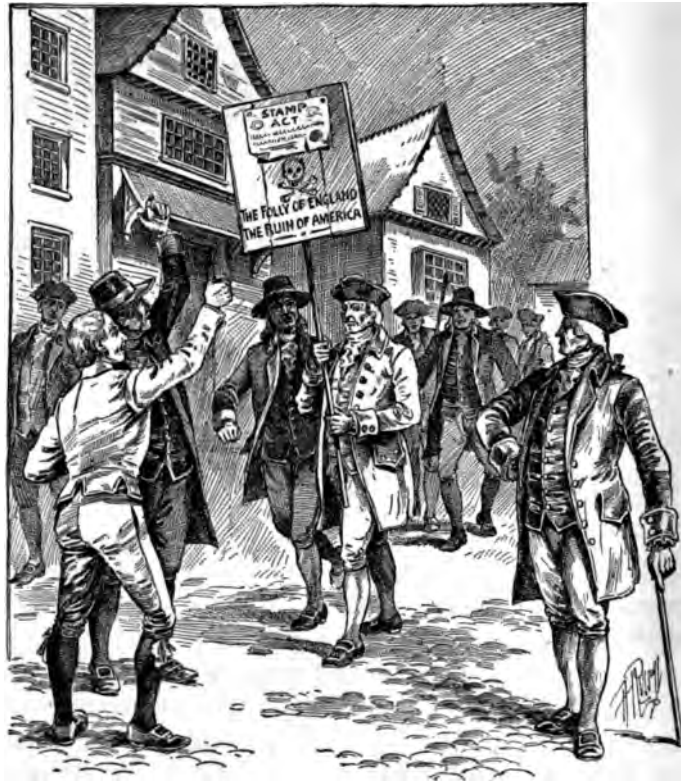
the coming of 1765 that statesman had been obliged to yield his place in the House of Commons, and with that event the Stamp Act was passed. In the Lower House the measure was adopted by a majority of five to one. In the House of Lords the vote was unanimous. At the time of the passage, the King was in a fit of insanity, and was unable to sign the bill. On the 22d of March the royal assent was given by a board of commissioners acting in the King's name. "The sun of American liberty has set," wrote Benjamin Franklin to a friend at home. "Now we must light the lamp of industry and economy." "Be assured," said the friend in reply, "that we shall *light torches of another sort*." And the answer reflected the sentiment and determination of the whole country.

The leading provisions of the Stamp Act were as follows: Every note, bond, deed, mortgage, lease, license and legal document of whatever sort required in the colonies should, after the 1st day of November, 1765, be executed on paper bearing an English stamp.

This stamped paper was to be furnished by the British government, and for each sheet the colonists were required to pay a sum varying, according to the nature of the document to be written or printed thereon, from three-pence to six pounds sterling. Every colonial pamphlet, almanac and newspaper was required to be printed on the stamped paper, the value of the stamps in this case ranging from a half-penny to four-pence; every advertisement was taxed two shillings. No contract was to be of any binding force unless written on paper bearing the royal stamp.

THE TORCH OF REBELLION LIGHTED.

It was not likely that an act such as this would be received in other than a wrathful spirit by the already goaded American colonists. The news of the passage of the act swept over the country like a thunder-cloud. The weaker of the people gave way to grief; but the stronger, the more courageous, were indignant, angry, defiant. Crowds of excited men surged into the towns and there were some acts of violence. In Philadelphia and Boston the bells rung a funeral peal and the people called it the death-knell of liberty. At New York there was a procession; a copy of the Stamp Act was carried through the streets with a death's-head nailed to it and a placard bearing this inscription—"The folly of England and the ruin of America."



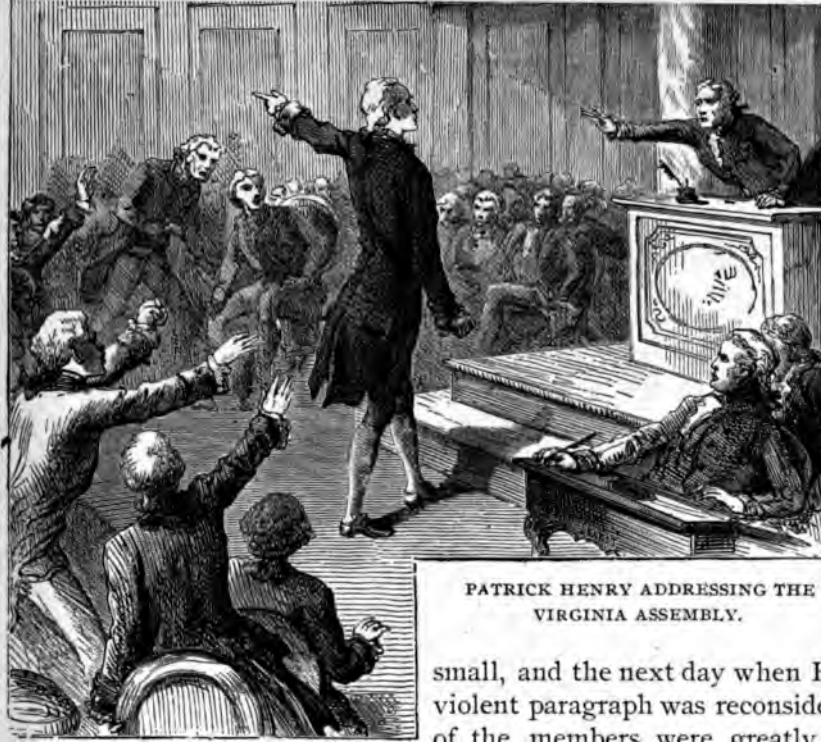
PROCESSION IN NEW YORK IN OPPOSITION TO THE STAMP ACT.

The orators added fuel to the flame. In the Virginia House of Burgesses there was a memorable scene. Patrick Henry, the youngest member of the House, an uneducated mountaineer from Louisa county, waited for some older delegate to lead the Burgesses in opposition to Parliament. But the older members were of that conservative folk with whom ease and estates and possessions have triumphed over the hazards of freedom and aggression. Some of these hesitated; others went home.

Offended at this lukewarmness, Henry in his passionate way snatched a blank leaf out of an old law-book and hastily drew up a series of fiery resolutions declaring that the Virginians were Englishmen with English rights; that the people of Great Britain had the exclusive privilege of voting their own taxes and so had the Americans; that the colonists were not bound to yield obedience to any law imposing taxation on them; and that whoever said the contrary was an enemy to the country. The resolutions were at once laid before the House.

It was the signal for excitement and tumult. A violent debate ensued, in which the

patriots had the best of the argument. It was a moment of intense interest. The legislative assembly of the oldest and most populous of all the colonies was about to act. Two future Presidents of the United States were in the audience; Washington occupied his seat as a delegate and Thomas Jefferson, fresh from college, stood just outside the railing. The eloquent and audacious Henry bore down all opposition. "Tarquin and Cæsar had each



PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY.

his Brutus," said the indignant orator; "Charles I. had his Cromwell, and George III." — "Treason!" shouted the Speaker. "Treason, treason!" cried the terrified loyalists, springing to their feet. — "And George III. may profit by their example," continued Henry; and then added as he took his seat, "If that be treason, make the most of it!" The resolutions were put to the House and adopted; but the majorities on some of the votes were

small, and the next day when Henry was absent the most violent paragraph was reconsidered and expunged; some of the members were greatly frightened at their own audacity. But the resolutions in their entire form had gone before the country as the expression of the oldest American commonwealth and the effect on the other colonies was as the shock of a battery.

ASSEMBLING OF THE FIRST COLONIAL CONGRESS.

Other Assemblies proceeded in a similar strain. Resolutions like those of the Virginia House were adopted in New York and Massachusetts—in the Assembly of the latter State before the action of Virginia was known. At Boston James Otis proposed the holding of an American Congress. His plan was to the effect that each colony, without leave of the King, should appoint delegates to meet in the following autumn and discuss the affairs of the nation. The proposition was received with much favor. Nine of the colonies appointed delegates and on the 7th of October, 1765, the First Colonial Congress assembled at New York.

Twenty-eight representatives were present at the session of this memorable body. Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts, was chosen president. After much discussion a Declaration of Rights was adopted setting forth in moderate but unmistakable terms that the American colonists, as Englishmen, could not and would not consent to be taxed save by their own representatives. Memorials were also prepared and addressed to the two Houses of Parliament. A manly petition declaring loyalty and praying for a just and humane policy toward his American subjects was drawn up and directed to the King.

The Stamp Act was to have gone into effect on the 1st of November. The British government went straight ahead with the preliminaries fully expecting the American colonies to accept the measure. During the summer great quantities of the stamped paper were prepared and sent to America. Everywhere it was rejected or destroyed. The 1st of November instead of marking the beginning of a new era of British revenue in the colonies was observed as a day of mourning. At first legal business was suspended. The court houses and other public offices were shut up. Not even a marriage license could be legally issued and the affianced of the young men and women put off the consummation of their unions.

By and by, however, the offices began to be opened and business was resumed, but it was *not* transacted with stamped paper. The antagonism against the act had now penetrated to the secret depths of society. It was at this time that the patriotic order known as the Sons of Liberty was organized under an oath of secrecy and with the one profound purpose of resisting the arbitrary acts and tyranny of the British ministry. The patriot merchants at New York, Boston and Philadelphia took up the cause and entered into an agreement to purchase no more goods of Great Britain until the Stamp Act should be repealed.

Meanwhile the ministry had to meet the rising tide of an indignant opposition in England as well as America. It was found that the American colonists were not without their friends. Some of the most eminent British statesmen espoused their cause. In the House of Commons William Pitt planted himself squarely in the pathway of the government. On one occasion he delivered a powerful address on the relations of the mother country to the colonies. "You have," said he, "no right to tax America. I rejoice that America has resisted!" The opposition prevailed and on the 18th of March, 1766, the Stamp Act was formally repealed. At the same time, however, and as a sort of salve to the Parliamentary honor it was declared by resolution that Parliament had the right "to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

IMPOSITION OF OTHER OPPRESSIVE DUTIES.

Great was the joy in both England and America when the news of the repeal of the Stamp Act was borne abroad. The reversal in British policy was so complete as to effect a change in the ministry. Earl Grenville was obliged to retire from the place of Prime Minister and the leadership of the cabinet was given to William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. That statesman, however, was already fallen into the decrepitude which preceded his death. In the very crisis of affairs he was confined by sickness to his country home. In accordance with usage Charles Townshend, a member of the cabinet, acted in the place of the Prime Minister, and while holding that position for a brief period brought forward with strange fatuity a new scheme for taxing America. On the 29th of June, 1767, a system of American customs-duties was devised and an act passed imposing an import tariff on all the glass, paper, painters' colors and tea which should thereafter be shipped to American harbors.

With the passage of this act the slumbering resentment of the colonists burst out anew. A second agreement was made by the American merchants not to purchase British goods until the objectionable acts should be repealed. The colonial newspapers were filled with denunciations of Parliament. The question was again taken up by the patriots in the various legislatures. Early in 1768 the Assembly of Massachusetts prepared a circular and sent it abroad calling upon the other colonies for assistance in the effort to obtain redress of grievances. This paper had the effect of enraging the British ministers and they required the Assembly to rescind their action and to express regret for that "rash and hasty proceeding."

The merchantmen trading with the colonies caught their spirit. In many instances they chose to violate the customs act and dutiable goods were thus brought in free. In June of 1768 a sloop charged with evading the payment of duty was seized by the custom house officers at Boston. This done, a tumult broke out. The people became insurgent, attacked the houses of the officers and obliged the occupants to save themselves by flight to Castle William, on an island in the harbor. Affairs soon came to so high a pass as to betoken revolution. General Gage, commandant of a regiment of British regulars at Halifax, was accordingly ordered to repair to Boston and overawe the insurgents. He arrived at that city on the 1st of October bringing with him seven hundred soldiers. With these he marched into the capital of Massachusetts after the manner of a conqueror.

The excitement in Parliament rose to an equal height. In February of 1769 that body passed an act declaring the people of Massachusetts to be rebels and directing the governor to arrest such as might be deemed guilty and send them *to England* for trial! This act was fuel to the flame. The General Assembly of Massachusetts met the outrage with defiant resolutions. Similar measures were taken by the Assemblies in Virginia and North Carolina. In the latter State there was a popular insurrection, but Governor Tryon succeeded in suppressing it. The insurgents being outlawed escaped across the mountains to become the founders of Tennessee.

THE BOSTON MASSACRE.

Already in the principal American cities the peace was broken between the British soldiery and the people. The former constituted a kind of garrisons, with no respect indeed to a foreign foe, but having the manifest purpose of suppressing the inhabitants among whom they were quartered. In 1770 the British soldiers in New York cut down a liberty-pole which had been erected in the Park. Hereupon a conflict ensued in which the people were victorious. In Boston a more serious difficulty occurred. In that city, on the 5th of March, a crowd of people, rough but patriotic, surrounded Captain Preston's company of the city guard, addressed them with epithets, hooted at them and dared them to fire. At length the soldiers becoming angry took the challenge, discharged a volley and killed three of the citizens, wounding several others. This riot of blood and lawlessness became known as the Boston massacre. The event created a profound sensation. Captain Preston and his company were arrested and tried for murder, and two of the offenders were convicted of manslaughter.

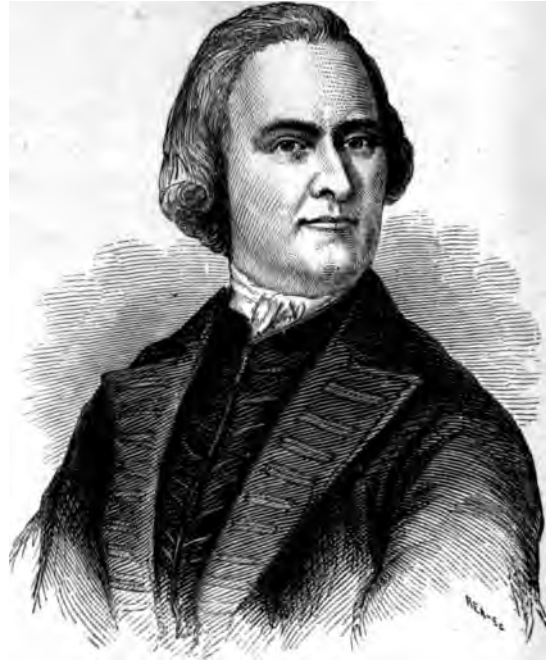
By this time it had become apparent even in England that a different policy must be adopted with the American colonies. The method of conciliation was now attempted, and Parliament passed an act repealing all duties on American imports *except* that on tea. The people in answer pledged themselves to use no more tea until the duty should be unconditionally repealed. In 1772 an act was passed making the salaries of the King's officers in Massachusetts payable out of the treasury without consent of the Assembly. This measure was resisted as the others before it had been. About the same time the *Gaspée*, a royal schooner anchored at Providence, was boarded by the patriots of that city and burned.

A VIOLENT RESENTMENT OF THE TAX ON TEA.

In the following year Parliament, acting after the manner of a petulant boy having the wrong side of a quarrel, and abandoning his former untenable position as if by stages of apology and reparation, passed an act removing the export duty which had hitherto been charged on tea shipped *from England*. The price was by so much lowered, and the ministers flattered themselves with the belief that when the cheaper tea was offered in the American market the colonists would pay the import duty without suspicion. Ships were

accordingly loaded with tea for America. Some of the vessels reached Charlestown; but the tea chests being refused by the merchants were stored in cellars and the contents ruined. At New York and Philadelphia the ships were forbidden to enter the docks. At Boston the authorities would not permit the tea to be landed.

Now it was that one of the striking incidents precursive of the coming war occurred at the capital of Massachusetts. On the 16th of December, 1773, there was a great town-meeting, at which about seven thousand people were present. Samuel Adams and Josiah Quincy spoke to the multitude. Evening came on, and the meeting was about to adjourn when a war whoop was heard, and fifty men disguised as Indians marched to the wharf where the tea-chests ships were at anchor. The masqueraded men quickly boarded the vessels and emptied three hundred and forty chests of tea into the bay. Such was the Boston Tea Party! In the language of Carlyle, "Boston harbor was black with unexpected tea!"



SAMUEL ADAMS.

Great was the wrath produced by the intelligence of this event in Great Britain. Parliament made haste to find revenge. On the 31st of March, 1774, the Boston Port Bill was passed, by which it was enacted that no kind of merchandise should any longer be landed or shipped at the wharves of Boston. The custom-house was removed to Salem; but the people of that town refused to accept it! What must have been the temper and sentiment of a town which refused to accept a custom-house as a free gift from the mother country? The inhabitants of Marblehead gave the free use of their warehouses to the merchants of Boston.

When the news of the passage of the Port Bill reached Virginia the burgesses promptly entered a protest on their journal. Hereupon Governor Dunmore ordered the members to their homes; but they adjourned only to meet in another place and continue their work. On the 20th of May a climax was reached in Parliament by the passage of an act revoking and annulling the charter of Massachusetts. The people of that province were declared rebels, and the governor was ordered to send abroad for trial all persons who should resist the royal officers.

Now it was, namely, in September of 1774, that the Second Colonial Congress assembled at Philadelphia. Eleven colonies were represented. One address was prepared and sent to the King, a second to the English nation and a third to the people of Canada. A resolution was adopted to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain! When information of this daring measure reached England Parliament retaliated by ordering General Gage to reduce the colonists by force. A fleet and ten thousand soldiers were sent to aid him in the work of subjugation. Boston Neck was seized and fortified by the British. The military stores at Cambridge and Charlestown were conveyed to Boston and the General Assembly was ordered to disband. The members, however, instead of dispersing, voted to raise and equip an army of twelve thousand men for defence.

CHAPTER XIII.

FROM CONCORD TO QUEBEC.



FROM the first the people of Boston were on one side and General Gage and his army on the other. There was hardly a middle ground of conservatism between them. As soon as the British occupancy was effected, the Bostonians, concealing their ammunition in carts, conveyed it out of the city to the village of Concord, about sixteen miles away. The possession of these military stores was of the greatest importance to the colony, and their recapture of like importance to the British commander. On the night on the 18th of April he accordingly despatched a regiment of eight hundred men to recapture or destroy the stores which the patriots had collected at Concord. The plan of the British was made with great secrecy, but the provincials discovered the movement, and when the regiment, under command of Colonel Smith and Major

Pitcairn, set out for Concord, the people of Boston were roused by the ringing of bells and the firing of cannon. Two messengers, William Dawes and Paul Revere, rode with all speed to Lexington and spread the alarm through the country.

At two o'clock in the morning of the 19th of April a company of a hundred and thirty minute-men gathered on the common at Lexington. They came with arms to resist the approaching enemy. But no enemy appeared until about five o'clock, when the British advance under Pitcairn, came into sight. The provincials were led by Captain Parker. Pitcairn rode up and exclaimed: "Disperse, ye villains! Throw down your arms!" The minute-men stood still, and Pitcairn cried "Fire!" The first volley of the Revolution whistled through the air and sixteen of the patriots fell dead or wounded. The rest fired a few random shots and dispersed.

BATTLE OF CONCORD.

After this passage at arms the British passed on without further molestation to Concord. But the inhabitants had removed the stores to a place of safety and there was but little left for destruction. While the British were ransacking the town the minute-men gathered and confronted a company of soldiers who were guarding the North Bridge. Here the Americans first fired under orders of their officers and two British soldiers were killed. The volley was hotter than the enemy had expected, and the company, abandoning the bridge, began a retreat through the town and thence in the direction of Lexington.

This movement was the signal for the patriots to rally. They came flocking from all directions. They rose on every side as if from the earth. For six miles they kept up the battle along the road. They hid behind trees, fences and barns and poured a constant fire upon the retreating British. At one time it seemed that the whole regiment would be obliged to surrender. As it was, the enemy lost two hundred and seventy-three men, while the American loss was forty-nine killed, thirty-four wounded and five missing.

Great was the fame of the battle. Rumor took the news thereof upon her wings and sped away through all the colonies. Not even the Alleghanies stayed the intelligence



PAUL REVERE SPREADING THE ALARM.

until it had reached the remotest English cabins in the Ohio Valley, Kentucky and Tennessee. The country was fired with the passion of war. Men armed themselves of their own accord and within a few days an army of twenty thousand patriot soldiers gathered about Boston. A line of entrenchments was drawn around the city from

Roxbury to Chelsea. It was the common talk of the tumultuous host that they would soon drive Gage and his red-coats into the sea. Captain John Stark came down with the militia of New Hampshire. Old Israel Putnam, with his leather waistcoat on, hurried to the nearest town, mounted a horse and rode to Cambridge, a distance of a hundred miles in eighteen hours! Rhode Island sent her men under Colonel Nathaniel Greene, and Benedict Arnold came with the provincials of New Haven.

CAPTURE OF TICONDEROGA.

Ethan Allen, of Vermont, made war in the other direction. With a company of two hundred and seventy patriots from the Green Mountains he advanced against Ticonderoga. Arnold joined the expedition as a private. On the evening of the 9th of May, the force reached the shore of Lake George opposite the fort. On the following morning eighty-three men succeeded in crossing. With this mere handful Allen made a dash and gained the gateway of the fort. The sentinel was driven in closely followed by the patriot mountaineers. The audacious captain rushed to the quarters of the commandant and cried out, "Surrender this fort instantly!" "By what authority?" inquired the officer. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," said Allen, flourishing his sword.* There was no alternative.



GEN. NATHANIEL GREENE.

* The bravado of Ethan Allen and his answer have ever been precious morsels in Revolutionary tradition. His conduct and words were as humorous as they were emphatic. His citation of authority was a ludicrous anachronism, for the capture of the fort was made about five hours before the Continental Congress convened.

The entire force of the provincials now ready for action was fewer than fifteen hundred men. Generals Putnam and Warren had both arrived at the redoubt, but each refused to take the command from Colonel Prescott and both served as privates in the trenches. During the British advance Charlestown was set on fire and soon reduced to ashes. Thousands of spectators climbed to the housetops in Boston to watch the battle. On came the British in a stately and imposing column.

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

The Americans, as directed by their officers, reserved their fire until the advancing line of the enemy was within a hundred and fifty feet. Then from the breastworks suddenly there burst a sheet of flame, and the front ranks of the British withered in the blast. After a few volleys of this deadly fire the rest of the enemy fell into retreat. Once out of range of the patriot muskets, Howe rallied his men and led them to the second charge. Again the Americans withheld their fire until the enemy was but a few rods from the works, and then with steady aim the deadly work of the first charge was repeated. The provincials took steady aim and volley after volley was poured upon the British column until it was broken and driven into flight.



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

Before the second repulse the ships of the enemy's fleet changed position so as to get the range of the American redoubt and that position became almost untenable. For the third time the British soldiers were reformed and sent forward up the hillside with fixed bayonets. Unfortunately for the patriots they had been but poorly supplied with ammunition. They were also exhausted with the battle, and with the indiscretion of raw troops, had eaten up their rations early in the day. The provincials had but three or four rounds of powder and balls remaining. These they

expended on the advancing enemy and then there was a lull. The British reached the ramparts and clambered over. The Americans, now out of ammunition, clubbed their guns and hurled stones at the assailants. There was a brief hand-to-hand conflict. But the courage of the defenders was in vain and they were driven out of the works at the point of the bayonet.

One of the last to leave the trenches was the heroic Warren, who was struck with a British ball, and gave his life for freedom. The losses on both sides had been out of all proportion to the numbers engaged. That of the British was a thousand and fifty-four in killed and wounded, while the Americans lost a hundred and fifteen killed, three hundred and five wounded and thirty-two prisoners. More than a third on each side had been put *hors du combat* in the struggle on the summit of Breed's Hill. The Americans fell back over Bunker Hill, and were led in retreat by Prescott and Putnam, first to Prospect Hill and then across Charlestown Neck to Cambridge.

Thus was the war of the Revolution precipitated by a bloody battle. To the patriots the conflict on Bunker Hill was a circumstance of inspiration rather than discouragement. There was no longer any doubt that provincial militiamen, ununiformed and undisciplined, each with his own hunting-shirt and powder-horn and rifle, would stand against the veteran columns of Great Britain. This was much. The news of the battle was borne swiftly through the colonies as far as Georgia and the spirit of determined opposition was every-

where aroused. The people began to speak of the United Colonies of America. They talked openly of independence as a possible consequence of the war. At Charlotte, in the Mecklenburg district of North Carolina, the citizens ran together in a convention and actually passed a resolution and preamble declaring Independence.

WASHINGTON APPOINTED TO COMMAND THE AMERICAN ARMY.

Meanwhile, on the same day as the capture of Ticonderoga, the Colonial Congress convened at Philadelphia. It was a noted assembly. Washington was there and John Adams and Samuel Adams, Franklin and Patrick Henry; Jefferson came soon afterwards. It was a meeting of heroes and patriots. A last appeal was drawn up and sent to the King,

telling that monarch that the American colonists, driven by exaction and injustice, had chosen war in preference to slavery.

Early in the session John Adams made an address in the course of which he referred to the necessity of appointing a commander-in-chief for the American army, and noted the qualities requisite in that high officer. The speaker concluded by putting in nomination George Washington, of Virginia. On the mention of his name Washington arose



THE CLOSING CHARGE AT BUNKER HILL.

and withdrew from the hall, saying to a friend outside, "I fear that this day will mark the beginning of the downfall of my military reputation." On the 15th of June, two days before the battle of Bunker Hill, the nomination was confirmed by Congress, and the man who had saved the wreck of Braddock's army was called upon to stand between the colonies as a whole

and the wrath of the mother country, and to save, possibly to build, a nation.

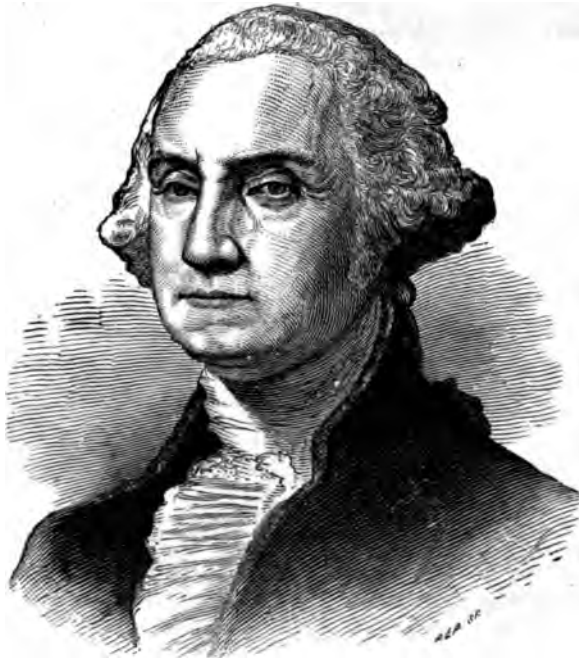
Washington was at the time of his election as commander-in-chief a little more than forty-three years of age. His reputation was already that of a hero, patriot and statesman. He was out of Virginia—born in Westmoreland county, on the 11th of February (old style), 1732. At the age of eleven he had been left to the sole care of his mother. His education was limited to the common branches of learning; he was not a collegian. Surveying was his favorite study. At the early age of sixteen he had been sent by his uncle to survey a tract of land in the valley of the South Potomac. His first public duties performed in the service of the Ohio Company, under direction of Governor Dinwiddie, and in the disastrous campaign of Braddock, have already been narrated. With great dignity and diffidence he accepted the appointment of commander-in-chief, and set out to join the army at Cambridge. Henceforth to the end of the war the destinies of the American cause were in the largest measure entrusted to his keeping.

At the very beginning of the session Congress voted to equip an army of twenty thousand men, but the means of doing so were not furnished. Here, for the first time, we note the essential vice of that confederative plan of government with which the history of the American people as a nation begins. The raising of revenue, the furnishing of supplies, the payment of levies, and all things included in this important branch of administration, were left to the individual States. Congress, under the existing compact, had no right to collect revenues or gather the supplies requisite for the prosecution of the war. Throughout the revolutionary struggle both Congress and the general of the armies were constantly hampered and impeded by this fatal defect in that system of administration which went by the name of government, but was in reality no government at all.

ORGANIZATION OF THE AMERICAN ARMY.

On taking command of the army at Cambridge Washington found himself at the head of a force of fourteen thousand five hundred volunteers; but they were undisciplined and

insubordinate. Worse than this, they did not for the most part desire to be disciplined or to become subordinate. The spirit of individuality and localism was rampant. The supplies of war were almost wholly wanting. But the army was soon organized and arranged in three divisions. The right wing was assigned to General Artemas Ward and stationed at Roxbury. The left was put under command of General Charles Lee and given position at Prospect Hill. The centre under the commander-in-chief lay at Cambridge. After Bunker Hill the British held possession of Boston, including the Charlestown peninsula; but the patriots yielded no inch of their ground, and soon returned to the siege of the city. The investment was made with vigor and determination, and the British generals soon found themselves cooped up with no prospect of free campaigns or success in the open field.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

The King's authority was very soon overthrown in all the colonies. In most of them there was little resistance to the popular movement. In Virginia the governor, Lord Dunmore, after being driven from office, proclaimed freedom to the slaves, and raised a force of loyalists and inaugurated civil war; but he was soon defeated by the patriots in an engagement near Norfolk. By the autumn of 1775 the royal officers were all expelled, and popular governments on the republican plan instituted in every one of the thirteen colonies.

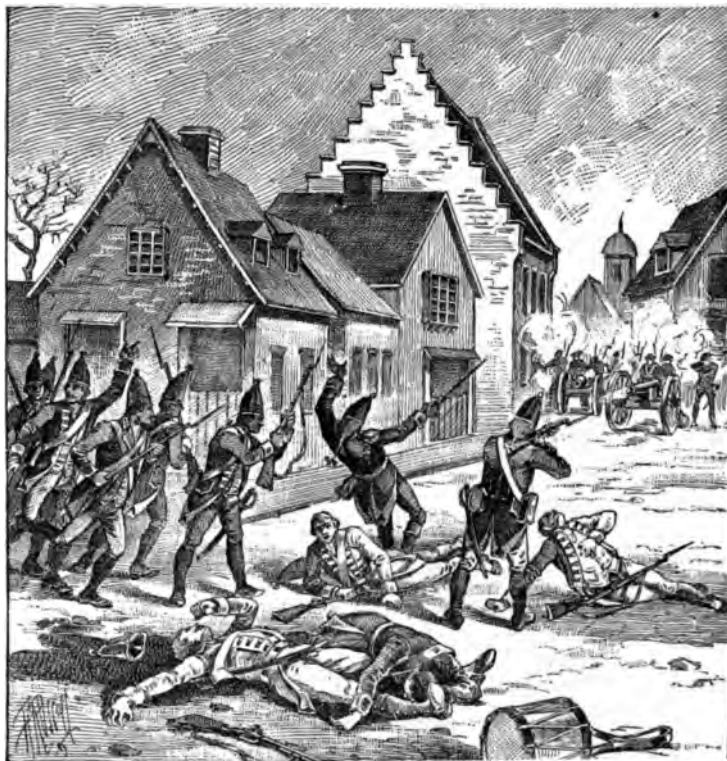
It was expected by the Americans that Canada would make common cause with the rest, but this expectation was doomed to disappointment. In the hope of encouraging the people of that province to renounce the mother country and take up arms, Generals Schuyler and Montgomery were ordered to proceed against St. John's and Montreal. The former fort was reached on the 10th of September, and General Montgomery succeeded at

length in capturing it from the British garrison. Montreal was invested shortly afterwards, and on the 13th of November was obliged to capitulate. General Montgomery in the next place marched with three hundred men against Quebec. In the meantime Colonel Benedict Arnold had set out for the same destination with a thousand men drawn from the army at Cambridge. After a march of untold hardship and suffering that daring commander reached the St. Lawrence and climbed to the Plains of Abraham above Quebec. At Point aux Trembles he was joined by Montgomery, who as the senior officer took command. The whole force fit for effective duty did not now exceed nine hundred men, so greatly had they suffered. Quebec, in addition to being a place of great natural and artificial strength, was defended by greatly superior numbers. Yet for three weeks with his mere handful of troops Montgomery besieged the town, and finally staked everything on the issue of an assault.

ASSAULT ON MONTREAL.

Before daybreak of the 31st of December, 1775, the first division of the Americans, led by Montgomery in person, attacked the Lower Town. The second column, under Arnold, attempted to storm the Prescott gate. As Montgomery's men were rushing forward a masked battery before them burst forth with a storm of grapeshot, and at the first discharge Montgomery fell dead. The men, heartbroken at the loss of their leader, retreated and made their way to Wolfe's Cove, above the city.

Arnold had meanwhile, by extraordinary daring, fought his way into the Lower Town; but while leading a charge he was severely wounded and borne to the rear. Captain Morgan assumed command, and not knowing the fate of Montgomery pressed on through the narrow streets until he was overwhelmed and compelled to surrender. Arnold with the remnant of his forces retired to a point three miles above the city. The small-pox broke out in the camp; Quebec was strengthened; and in the following June the Americans evacuated Canada. The event fixed the destiny of the northern province. The Canadians remained in allegiance to the British crown, and Canada was used as a base of operations by the British in the further prosecution of the war.



THE ATTACK ON MONTREAL AND DEATH OF MONTGOMERY.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE YEAR OF INDEPENDENCE.



CAME the King's answer to the appeal of Congress. The petitions of the colonies were rejected with contempt. George III. and his minister planted themselves in a position from which there was no retreat. The issue was made up. Subjugation was the method deliberately adopted by the British Government with respect to the American colonies. By this policy and by the tyrannical answer of the King the day of Independence was brought near, even to the door.

After Bunker Hill, General Howe succeeded Gage in the command of the British forces of Boston. All winter long the city was besieged by Washington, and by the opening of spring, 1776, he felt himself strong enough to risk an assault; but the officers of his staff were of a different opinion, and a less hazardous plan was adopted. It was resolved instead of the direct assault to seize Dorchester Heights, gain a position from which the American batteries might command the city, and thus drive Howe out of Boston.

For two days the attention of the British was drawn by a constant fire from the American guns. Then, on the night of the 4th of March, a strong detachment was thrown forward under cover of the darkness and reached the Heights of Dorchester unperceived. The British gained no hint of the movement until morning; but with the coming of light, Howe perceived at a glance that he was suddenly thrown on the defensive and that he must immediately carry the American position or abandon the city. He accordingly ordered a force of two thousand four hundred men to storm the Heights before nightfall.

Washington, noting the plans and purposes of his adversary, visited the trenches, exhorted his men and gave directions to his officers. A spirit of battle flamed up like that at Bunker Hill. It was the anniversary of the Boston massacre, and that circumstance added fuel to the fires of patriotism. A battle was momentarily expected; but in the lull of preparation a storm arose, and rendered the harbor impassable for ships. The tempest continued to rage for a whole day, and the attack could not be made. Before the following morning the Americans had so strengthened their fortifications that all thoughts of an assault were abandoned, and General Howe found himself reduced to the extremity of giving up the capital of New England.

It was still in the power of the British, however, to destroy what they could not hold. Boston might be burned to the ground. Such a disaster must needs weigh heavily upon the patriots. Washington entered into negotiations with the British commander, and it



SIEGE OF BOSTON, 1776.

was agreed that the latter should retire from Boston unmolested on condition that the city should not be injured. On the 17th of March, the whole British army went on board the fleet and sailed away. About fifteen hundred loyalists who had chosen to hold to the King's cause against the cause of their country, and dreading to remain in a city and among a people by whom they must henceforth be ostracized as Tories and traitors, escaped with the British squadron. On the 20th of the month Washington made a formal entry at the head of his triumphant army. The country was wild with delight at the expulsion of the enemy. Congress ordered a gold medal struck in honor of Washington "victorious over the enemy for the first time put to flight."

THE CONFLICT OPENS IN OTHER SECTIONS.

The recovery of Boston from the British entailed two kinds of results on the patriot cause. New England at once recovered herself; Boston was fortified; a sense of relief came, and the people of New England feeling themselves freed, as they hoped for ever, of the presence of the British, regarded the conflict as virtually over and the victory won. This confidence was salutary so far as New England was concerned; but owing to the strong local prejudices existing among the colonies, it was injurious to the cause in other parts of the field. In a word, the men of New England were ready to fight to the death for the defence of New England, but did not feel the force of that higher patriotism which would lead them to fight with equal resolution and courage in the defence of the other American States.

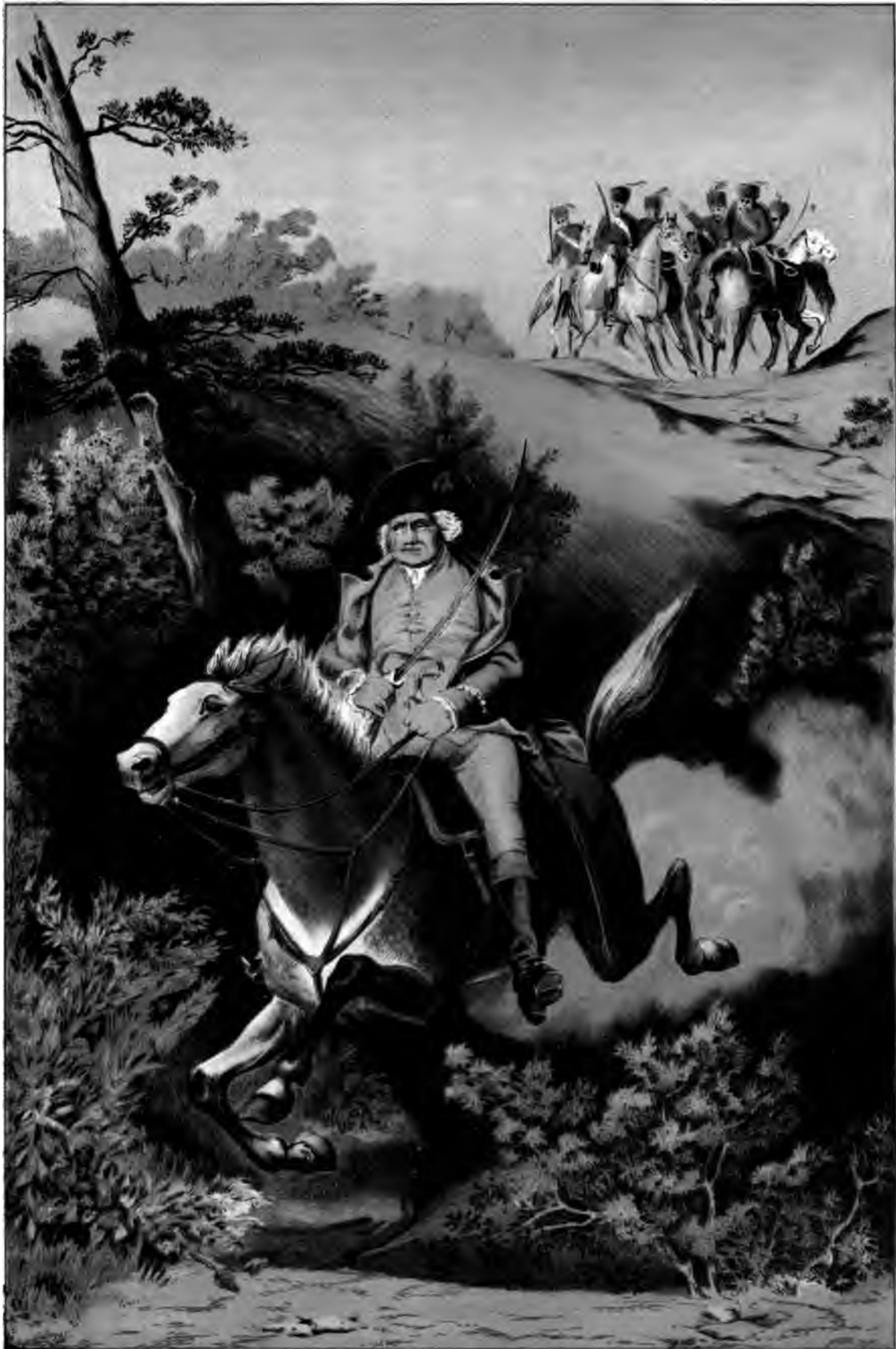
The evil influences of these feelings were felt as soon as the commander-in-chief began to withdraw his army from Boston for the defence of New York. Washington perceived that, though Boston was rescued, New York was exposed. General Lee was sent forward to the latter city with Connecticut militia, and reached New York just in time to baffle an attempt of Sir Henry Clinton, whose fleet arrived off Sandy Hook. He found that the city was already preoccupied by the patriot forces, and thereupon sailed away southward, to be joined by Sir Peter Parker and Lord Cornwallis, with two thousand five hundred additional British troops.

This force was reckoned sufficient for the capture of Charleston, but the Carolinians were by no means sleeping. Led by General Lee they rose in arms and flocked to the city as the men of New England had rushed to Boston after Concord and Lexington. Charleston was quickly fortified and a fort commanding the entrance to the harbor was built on Sullivan's Island. On the 4th of June the British squadron came in sight, but it was not until the 28th that the hostile fleet began a bombardment of the fortress which was commanded by Colonel William Moultrie. The British vessels obtained a good position and poured a torrent of balls upon the fort, but the walls, built of palmetto wood, were little injured. The flag-staff was shot away, but Sergeant Jasper leaped down outside the parapet, recovered the flag and set it in its place again—an incident famous in the revolutionary tradition. As evening came on the British, finding that they could make no impression upon the fortification, were obliged to withdraw after losing two hundred men. The patriot loss was thirty-two. As soon as the British could repair their fleet they abandoned Charleston and sailed for New York.

It was now evident that the military operations of 1776 were to be centred at New York and vicinity. During the summer Washington's forces were nominally increased by volunteering to about twenty-seven thousand men, but the effective force was little more



SIEGE OF CHARLESTON.



than half that number. The recruits were raw, undisciplined, unused to hardship, strangers to battle, poorly supplied, poorly equipped and in some instances badly commanded; or not all of the patriot officers were equal to their responsibilities.

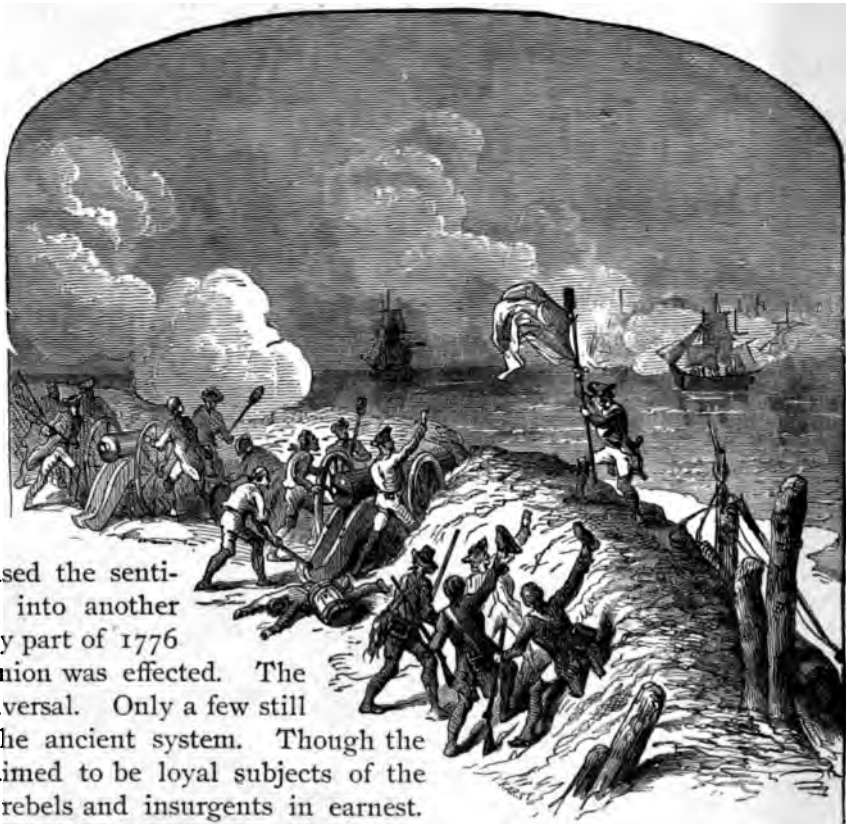
On the other side Great Britain with her enormous resources made the vastest preparations. She entered into a treaty with some of the minor German States by which seventeen thousand Hessians were hired for the American war. George III. was going to quell his revolted provinces by sending against them a mercenary, brutal, foreign soldiery. Twenty-five thousand additional English troops were levied. A powerful squadron was fitted out to aid in the reduction of the colonies and a million dollars voted for the extraordinary expenses of the war department.

DAWN OF INDEPENDENCE.

Until this epoch the hope had been entertained in America that the battle for English rights could be fought and won without the separation of the colonies from the British crown. The anger of the Americans had been against the ministry and the King rather than against the British people or the institution of monarchy. The vast majority of the patriots were up to this time wholly averse to the notion of independence. As late as the spring of 1776 Washington himself had said that he abhorred the idea of separating the colonies from the mother country.

But the heats of war soon melted and transfused the sentiment of the Americans into another form. It was in the early part of 1776 that this change of opinion was effected. The change was wellnigh universal. Only a few still clung to England and the ancient system. Though the colonists had thus far claimed to be loyal subjects of the crown they now became rebels and insurgents in earnest. Now the hope of reconciliation seemed utterly abolished. The people began to urge the Assemblies and the Assemblies to urge Congress to declare the independence of the colonies. Congress responded at first by recommending the colonies to adopt each and several for themselves such governments as might seem most conducive to the safety and welfare of the people. Meanwhile the discussions of Congress tended constantly in the direction indicated by the popular voice.

It was on the 7th of June, 1776, that Richard Henry Lee, a delegate from Virginia, offered in Congress the first resolution declaring that the United Colonies were and of right



THE ATTACK ON FORT MOULTRIE.

ought to be Free and Independent States. A long and exciting debate ensued in which the advocates of independence constantly gained ground and the minority of opposition wasted away. It was first agreed that the final consideration of Lee's resolution should be postponed until the 1st of July. Meanwhile on the 11th of June, four days after the first introduction of the measure, Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman and Robert R. Livingston were appointed a committee to prepare a formal declaration.*

Accordingly on the 1st of July the committee made its report to Congress. On the next day—the 2d—Lee's resolution was adopted in the original words. During the 3d the formal declaration as reported by the committee was debated with great spirit. The discussion was resumed on the 4th, though it was now clear both within and without the halls of Congress that the members had risen to the level of their convictions and that the report would be adopted. At 2 o'clock on the afternoon of the memorable day the vote on the Declaration of American Independence was called and the measure carried by a unanimous vote of all the colonies.

The tradition runs that the old bellman of the Statehouse, waiting with the rope in his hands until afternoon, became discouraged and said to the bystanders, "They will never do it. They will never do it." But they did do it, and the old bellman rang out the note of freedom to the nation. The multitudes caught the signal and answered with shouts. Everywhere the Declaration was received with enthusiastic applause. The people of Philadelphia proceeded at once to throw down the king's arms and burn them in the streets. At Williamsburg, Charleston and Savannah bonfires were kindled, and orators roused the people with declamation and appeal for freedom. At Boston the Declaration was read in Faneuil Hall. At New York the populace pulled down the leaden statue of George III. and cast it into bullets. Washington for his part ordered the Declaration to be read at the head of each brigade of the army.



THOMAS. JEFFERSON.

PRINCIPLES OF THE DECLARATION.

But what was this, our new Charter of Liberties? The leading principles of it are as follows: That all men are created equal; that all have a natural right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that human governments are instituted, not for the benefit of kings and princes, but for the sole purpose of securing the welfare of the people; that the people have a natural right to alter or even abolish their government whenever it

* The committee on the Declaration had at first for its chairman the mover of the resolution, Richard Henry Lee, but before the consideration of the subject was formally taken up Lee was called home to Virginia by sickness in his family. Thereupon Jefferson was appointed to serve in his place. The duty of preparing the Declaration devolved by seniority on John Adams, but he requested Jefferson to prepare the draught, giving as he does in his *Works* as a reason that he himself was a Massachusetts man, Jefferson a Virginian, and that he had noted with admiration *Jefferson's incisive style of writing!*

becomes destructive of liberty ; that the government of George III. had become destructive of liberty, and had thus passed under the ban of condemnation ; that the despotism of the King of England and his ministers could be shown by a long list of indisputable proofs, and the proofs are given ; that time and again the colonies had humbly petitioned for a redress of grievances ; that all their petitions had been spurned with derision and contempt ; that the King's irrational tyranny over his American subjects was no longer endurable by free-men ; that an appeal to the sword is preferable to slavery, and that, therefore, the United Colonies of America are and of right ought to be Free and Independent States. To the support of this noble, manly declaration of principles the members of the Continental Congress mutually pledged their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.

Already the people of the colonies were ready for the work done by Congress. Indeed the public mind, in its anger at British aggression and tyranny, had forerun the act of their



ADOPTION OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

representatives. The people had been indoctrinated with the concept and purpose of Independence. The writings of the Adamses, Otis and Jefferson had disseminated the principles of political freedom, and the taste thereof was sweet on the palate of the people. Thomas Paine's celebrated pamphlet on *Common Sense*, which more than any other single writing furnished the logical basis of Independence, had sapped the foundation of the remaining loyalty to the British crown. No sooner was the great Declaration promulgated

than the people of the colonies, now the people of the United States, like the signers of their Charter of Liberty, pledged to its support their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.

It was now a question of war and internationality. Could the American colonies sustain themselves against the overwhelming force of Great Britain? The enemy was already strong, not only in the home resources of the kingdom, but in her forces on American soil. In the beginning of July, General Howe was able to plant a force of nine thousand men on Staten Island. Thither Clinton and Cornwallis came from their unsuccessful attack on Charleston, and Admiral Howe, brother of the general, arrived from England. The whole British force now concentrated in the vicinity of New York amounted to not fewer than thirty thousand men. About half of these were the imported Hessians, for whose transit through his dominions Frederick the Great had charged *so much a head*, saying in magnificent sarcasm that that was the rate which he charged for driving *live-stock* across his kingdom! Washington's army was greatly inferior to the enemy in every respect—in numbers, in equipment, in experience, in discipline.

ENGLAND, ALARMED, SEEKS TO CONCILIATE THE AMERICANS.

Great Britain had not expected the startling denouement of Independence. She had considered herself thus far as dealing with a lot of refractory, contrary, penurious, half-rebellious colonists, whom she might easily overawe and then punish for their contumacy. Now she suddenly awoke to the fact that she was confronted by a nation of people who would fight and die for their rights. The Declaration of Independence was read with astonishment, not only in England, but in every court of Europe. No other such document had been drawn since the beginning of the modern era. Indeed, it was doubtful, and is still doubtful, whether any other such political paper had ever been produced among men. It was admitted by the gravest sages and statesmen that the Declaration prepared and sent abroad by the American people in Congress could not have been surpassed by the most astute, learned and patriotic thinkers of ancient or modern times. The effect of it was tremendous in the public opinion of Europe, insomuch that Great Britain, for the moment shocked into her senses, deemed it prudent to try conciliation.

Could the Americans be conciliated? That was the question. Lord Howe was instructed to open negotiations and attempt conciliatory measures with the Americans. He and his brothers had aforetime been the friends and companions of Benjamin Franklin in London. With them that great philosopher and patriot had held many conferences, urging them to interpose against the folly of England in driving the Americans to rebellion and independence. Now the tables were turned. The mischief had been done and Lord Howe must become the ambassador of his country in the attempt to reestablish peace. Howe addressed Franklin, and through him would fain exercise an influence over his fellow-countrymen. Franklin replied in one of those polite but caustic letters which so frequently in the days of trial proceeded from his pen, concluding with these words to his former friend, Lord Howe: "Henceforth you are my enemy, and I am

Yours,

B. FRANKLIN."

Lord Howe sent to the American Camp a despatch directed to "George Washington, Esquire." Washington refused to receive the communication which purposely ignored his official position as General of the American Armies. Howe then sent another communication addressed to "George Washington, etc., etc., etc.;" and the bearer insisted that *and-so-forth* might mean General of the American Army. But Washington sent the

officer away. It was not likely that the proud and sedate Virginian would permit a messenger to insult him by ignoring his official title. It was known, moreover, that Lord Howe's authority extended only to granting pardons at discretion to those who would submit to the authority of the mother country. To this the prudent Washington replied that since no offence had been committed, no pardon was required.

BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND.

With the breaking off of these inane negotiations Lord Howe and his brother at once began hostilities. On the 22d of August the British to the number of ten thousand crossed over to Long Island. The Americans at this time, to the number of seven or eight thousand, lay in the vicinity of Brooklyn. The British at once began an advance along several roads in the direction of that city and on the morning of the 27th General Grant's division of the British army reached the position now occupied by the southwestern outskirts of Greenwood cemetery. Here he was met by General Lord Stirling of the patriot army with a division of fifteen hundred men. The battle at once began, but in this part of the field there was no decisive result. In the meantime General Von Heister, who commanded the British centre advanced beyond Flatbush and engaged the American centre



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND.

under General Sullivan. Here the Hessians, who composed the larger part of Von Heister's division gained little or no ground, until Sullivan was suddenly alarmed by the noise of battle on his left and rear.

The American left had been assigned to General Putnam; but that officer had neglected to guard the passes in the direction of Bedford and the sequel showed that this neglect was fatal, for during the night General Sir Henry Clinton had made a detour from the British right and had occupied the heights to the east and north of the Jamaica road. It was his division that now came down by way of Bedford and fell upon the unsuspecting left of the American army. Sullivan in the centre found himself thus surrounded and cut off; for Putnam's division on the left had been broken to pieces by the onset of the

British. The patriots in the other parts of the line fought bravely and many broke through the closing ranks of the British and escaped; but the rest were scattered, killed or taken prisoners.

In the meantime Cornwallis had attempted to cut off General Stirling's retreat, but was for the moment repulsed. Stirling's division, however, was in the greatest peril. Most of the men threw themselves into the rising waters at the head of a narrow inlet called Gowanus Bay, struggled across and saved themselves by joining the American lines at Brooklyn. The three generals, Stirling, Sullivan and Woodhull, were taken prisoners. Nearly a thousand patriots were killed and missing. The British losses were but slight. It seemed an easy thing for Clinton and Howe to close in on Brooklyn and complete their work by capturing the remainder of the American army. But this they neglected to do. Washington from his headquarters in New York heard the news with as much dismay as his strong nature was capable of manifesting. He hurried across to Brooklyn and made the most unwearied efforts to save his army from further disaster. Perceiving that he could not hold his position he resolved to withdraw to New York. The enterprise was extremely hazardous. At eight o'clock on the evening of the 29th of August the embarkation of

It was on the 8th of December that Washington finally succeeded in putting the Delaware between himself and the pursuing foe. Cornwallis having no boats was obliged to wait for the freezing of the river before continuing the pursuit. In the interim the British army was stationed in the towns and villages on the left bank of the river. Of these stations Trenton was the most important. The place was held by about two thousand Hessians, under Colonel Rahl. It was the design of the British as soon as the river should be frozen to march on Philadelphia, capture that city, scatter the remnants of the American army and restore the authority of Great Britain. Such a result was greatly feared by prudent Americans, and it was deemed expedient as a precautionary measure that Congress should be adjourned from Philadelphia to Baltimore.

DISCOURAGEMENTS TO THE AMERICAN CAUSE.

In the meantime the fleet of Admiral Parker which had been engaged in the attack on Charleston bore down upon the coast of New England. On the same day that Washington crossed the Delaware the islands of Rhode Island and Conanicut were taken by the British squadron. The American fleet, under Commander Hopkins, was blockaded in the mouth of the Blackstone River. During all these movements General Charles Lee, with a large division of the American forces, had remained at Northcastle. To him Washington sent one despatch after another to abandon the place and repair with his troops to the west bank of the Delaware, where all might be concentrated under the commander-in-chief. Lee marched with his division as far as Morristown, and established his own quarters at a place called Basking Ridge. Here on the 13th of December a squad of British cavalry suddenly appeared, captured Lee and hurried him off to New York. General Sullivan took command of the division and hastened to join Washington beyond the Delaware. The entire American forces were thus augmented to a little more than six thousand men.

But it was the midnight of the patriot cause. It appeared that the hope of Independence flickered to the socket. The forces at the command of Washington were unable to cope with the enemy, and the whole country was greatly dispirited. It was emergency such as this, however, that served to bring out the grandeur and strength of Washington. With him there was no thought of yielding. He saw in the present ebb of fortune that extreme of affairs from which a reaction must necessarily arise. He perceived in the disposition of the British forces an opportunity to strike a blow for his country. It was evident that the leaders of the enemy were off their guard. The Hessians on the east side of the river were scattered in their quarters from Trenton to Burlington. Washington conceived the bold design of crossing the Delaware and striking the detachment at Trenton before a concentration of the enemy's forces could be effected. This design he now proceeded to carry into execution.

The American army was arranged in three divisions. The first, under General John Cadwallader, was ordered to cross the river at Bristol and attack the enemy encamped in that neighborhood. General Ewing was directed to pass over a little below Trenton, in order to intercept the possible retreat of the enemy. Washington himself, with twenty-four hundred men under immediate command of Sullivan and Greene, was to cross the Delaware nine miles above Trenton and march down the river to surprise and capture the town. For all these movements the night of Christmas was selected as furnishing the best opportunity of success.

Cold weather had now supervened and the Delaware was already filled with floating ice. Generals Ewing and Cadwallader were both baffled in their efforts to cross the river, as was also General Putnam, who had been ordered to effect a crossing at Philadelphia and

make a feint against the British in that quarter. Washington, however, succeeded in getting over at the place now called Taylorsville. But the crossing was attended with the greatest difficulty and hazard.

WASHINGTON'S CAPTURE OF THE HESSIANS.

The commander once on the Jersey shore divided his army into two columns and pressed forward by two different roads, one of which entered Trenton on the west side next the river and the other from the east. The crossing was greatly delayed, and it was already eight o'clock in the morning of the 26th before the Americans came in sight of the prize. But their courage rose to the occasion. It had been correctly divined by Washington that the Hessian soldiers and their officers would spend the Christmas day in holiday and rioting. They were still in their quarters, or only beginning to stir in the early morning, when the Americans from two directions burst into the town.

The Hessians sprang from their quarters and attempted to form in line. The American cannon began to roar and flashes of musketry sent deadly volleys whistling along the streets. Colonel Rahl was mortally wounded at the first onset. There was momentary confusion, and then nearly a thousand of the Hessians threw down their arms and surrendered at discretion. Only about six hundred, principally a body of light-horse, succeeded in making their escape in the direction of Princeton. Washington at once drew off with his prisoners and captured munitions and supplies. Before nightfall he was safe with his army on the other side of the Delaware.



PLAN OF BATTLES OF
PRINCETON AND
TRENTON.

The trophies of the battle were not inconsiderable. The Americans for their part lost not a man in the engagement, which had continued hotly for thirty-five minutes. The enemy lost seventeen killed and seventy-eight wounded. The number of prisoners taken was nine hundred and forty-six, nearly all of them the mercenaries from Hesse. Of arms the patriots captured twelve hundred British muskets, six brass cannon, two of them being 12-pounders, and all the flags and standards of the brigade. It was with good reason that Lord George Germain, the British Secretary for the Colonies, wrote, "All our hopes were blasted by the unhappy affair at Trenton."

The British, with good reason surprised at these movements of a foe whom they had supposed to be virtually vanquished, began to fall back from their outposts and concentrated at Princeton. Lord Cornwallis, earlier in the season believing the war to be over, had gone to New York and prepared to return to Europe. Now he must hasten back to his imperiled forces. Reaching Princeton he resumed command and began at once to devise plans for recovering the ground which had been lost by the unexpected successes of the Americans.

So closed the year 1776—the year of Independence. Only ten days previously General Howe had waited only for the freezing of the Delaware before taking up his quarters in Philadelphia. That done, already in anticipation he busied himself with the restoration of British authority and the final extinction of local resistance here and there. Already in imagination he saw the banner of St. George floating peacefully over every colonial capital and already received the thanks of his gracious sovereign, George III., of England. Now all this dream was suddenly dissipated. Now all the conditions of the conflict were reversed. Now the question was whether he and his army would be able to hold a single town in New Jersey against the onsets of reviving patriotism.

CHAPTER XV.

PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTION.



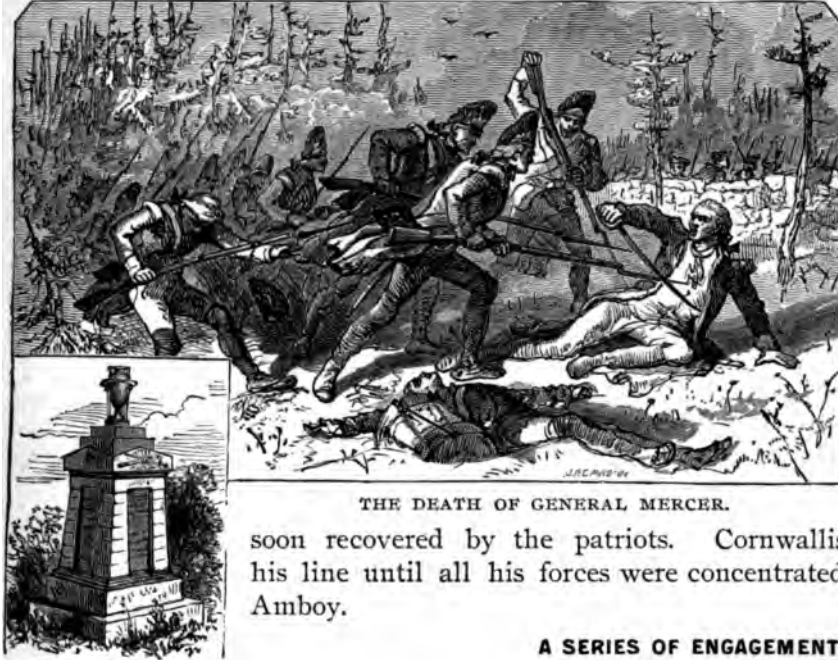
NEW YEAR'S sun of 1777 saw the army of Washington about five thousand strong encamped at Trenton. Lord Cornwallis was by no means disposed to yield the field to his enemy without battle. Arriving at Princeton he gathered together his forces and proceeded at once against the Americans. The British were much superior in numerical strength and equipment. Cornwallis reached Trenton on the afternoon of the 1st and a severe skirmish occurred in the outskirts of the town.

The position of Washington was critical in the last degree. Should he be defeated in the approaching battle it would be impossible for him to retreat to a place of safety. In the emergency he deemed it prudent to withdraw from Trenton and take a more defensible position on the south bank of the Assanpink Creek. The British took possession of the town and in the afternoon attempted to force a passage of the stream, but were driven back. Night was approaching and Cornwallis deferred his principal attack till to-morrow.

With the coming of nightfall Washington called a council and it was determined to leave the camp, pass the British left and march upon the enemy at Princeton, about thirteen miles away. There Cornwallis had left one division of his forces. Washington caught at the opportunity thus afforded to strike the enemy in detail. He accordingly removed his baggage to Burlington, on the Delaware. The campfires were brightly kindled and kept burning through the night. Then the army was put in motion in the direction of Princeton. Everything was done in silence; the movement was undiscovered by the enemy and the morning light showed the British sentries on the Assanpink a deserted camp.

At the very time when Cornwallis's pickets discovered the withdrawal of the Americans Washington was entering Princeton. At sunrise Cornwallis heard the dull roar of the American guns in battle. The event showed that the British division at Princeton had been ordered the day before to withdraw on the morning of the 2d and proceed to Trenton. This order they were beginning to obey when Washington reached the town. The Americans met them on the outskirts of Princeton and the battle at once began. At the first charge of the British regulars the raw militia gave away in confusion, but they were rallied and brought into line again by Washington. The Pennsylvania regulars, under lead of the commander-in-chief, held their ground until the rally was effected. The tide of battle turned and the British were routed with a loss of four hundred and thirty men in killed, wounded and missing. On the American side the brave General Mercer was mortally wounded at the beginning of the engagement. Struck down by a blow from the butt of a musket, he refused to surrender and was bayoneted to death. The American loss from the rank and file was not nearly so great as that of the enemy.

Washington, though victorious, was in peril of the powerful Cornwallis, who came on hastily from Trenton, but was not in time to save his division from defeat. The American



THE DEATH OF GENERAL MERCER.

commander at once withdrew and on the 5th of January found a defensible position at Morristown. Cornwallis for his part retired to New Brunswick. This was clearly a retreat. The New Jersey provincials perceived that in the last ten days conditions had been reversed and that the enemy was worsted. The greater part of the State was soon recovered by the patriots. Cornwallis continued to contract his line until all his forces were concentrated at New Brunswick and Amboy.

A SERIES OF ENGAGEMENTS.

Thus passed the winter of 1776-77. The first movement of the following spring was a success for the British. They marched against the American force at Peekskill and destroyed the patriot stores collected at that place. On the 13th of April Cornwallis in person attacked General Lincoln, who was stationed on the Raritan; but the latter being inferior in numbers made good his retreat.

TRYON'S INVASION OF CONNECTICUT.

On the 25th of April, General Tryon made an invasion of Connecticut and his operations were characterized by a savagery which General Howe heartily condemned as disgraceful to the name of Briton. Tryon not only wantonly destroyed Danbury, Norwalk and Fairfield, but he massacred a part of Baylor's corps at Tappan and destroyed with the same merciless slaughter a detachment of Wayne's troops at Paoli, refusing to receive their offers of capitulation. It was during this incendiary and murderous riot that Benedict Arnold displayed for the first time his matchless heroism, and made good his escape through such fortune as gave to the incident a color of miracle.

After burning a large number of houses, both public and private, and visiting all manner of insults upon the helpless people, Tryon designed to complete the plunder and destruction of all the considerable places in Connecticut. Report of his marauding excursions, however, soon brought out a force of six hundred militia, under General David Wooster and Benedict Arnold, who by forced marches attempted to intercept Tryon at Danbury. Being apprised of their approach he retreated towards Ridgefield, but was followed so rapidly that Wooster at the head of his divided corps, with four hundred men struck Tryon's rear, capturing forty prisoners after a brief skirmish. Tryon, whose force was fully two thousand men was too cowardly to risk a battle, but continued his retreat until Arnold made a circuit and came up in front of the fleeing English and threw up a

barricade of logs, stone and earth, intending to intercept the enemy and force an engagement regardless of his vastly inferior force. When Tryon came in sight of Arnold's



EXPLOIT OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

fortified position and realized that his retreat was cut off either way, he ordered General Agnew to advance in solid column with the main body while detachments were sent to

outflank Arnold and gain his rear. The position of Arnold was by this movement rendered perilous in the extreme. Wooster still hung with tenacity on the enemy's rear, but very soon after the engagement opened he was struck by a musket ball and knocked from his horse. Though not instantly killed he died two days later, having survived for that length of time a broken back, the bone of which was shattered by the ball. Upon Arnold now devolved the chief command and right bravely he assumed the responsibility. Instead of seeking an escape he heroically confronted the enemy and easily held his position against the heavy odds until Agnew succeeded in gaining a ledge of rocks from which he poured a concentrated fire upon the Americans. A panic followed this slaughter, but Arnold stood defiant amid the dreadful hail-storm of bullets. It is said a whole platoon of British fired at him at a distance of not more than thirty yards but not a bullet struck him; his horse, however, fell pierced by several balls and for a moment the foot of Arnold



PLACE OF THE BARRICADE.

was held fast in a stirrup. At this juncture a Tory rushed forward with musket and bayonet shouting, "You are my prisoner!" Drawing a pistol Arnold shot the Tory dead and in a trice he had liberated his foot and bounded into a neighboring thicket pursued by a shower of bullets. Arnold's escape appeared so remarkable to the British that no further effort was made to catch him, while both sides had suffered so severely in the engagement that neither desired its renewal. A few days later, however, as Tryon was near Norwalk he learned that

Arnold had turned again to pursue him, having placed himself at the head of five hundred men and formed a junction at Sangatuck with Colonel Huntington with as many more. Several sharp skirmishes now followed with the retreating enemy and always to the advantage of the Americans, but the British finally succeeded in making their escape, though not until they had lost three hundred men and nearly all their munitions.

On the American side there were a few successful movements. On the evening of the 22d of May, Colonel Meigs, of Connecticut, embarked two hundred men in whaleboats, crossed Long Island Sound, and attacked Sag Harbor. The British garrison at that place was overpowered; only four of the number escaped, five or six were killed, and the remaining ninety taken prisoners. The British stores were destroyed by the patriots, who without the loss of a man returned to Guilford. The exploit was famous in the tradition of the year, and Colonel Meigs was rewarded by Congress with an elegant sword.

With the opening of the new year it was the policy of Washington to concentrate his forces on the Hudson. At the same time a camp of instruction and discipline was laid out on the Delaware and placed under charge of Arnold. In the latter part of May, the commander-in-chief left his winter-quarters and advanced to a position within ten miles of the British camp. General Howe crossed over from New York and threatened an attack on the American lines, but no serious onset was made. For a month the two armies counter-marched and skirmished with no decisive result to either. Finally the British began to fall back, and retired at length to Amboy. On the 30th of June, they finally abandoned New Jersey, and crossed over to Staten Island.

The American Congress had in the meantime recovered its equanimity with the expulsion of the British from New Jersey, and had returned from Baltimore to Philadelphia. A spirit of confidence was restored throughout the country. The retirement of the enemy served a better purpose than a great victory in the field. The patriots rallied and

the time-servers were thrown into confusion. In Philadelphia Toryism had been rampant. Only two months before the retreat of the British, prayers had been publicly read for the King! Now all that was ended, and the first anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was proudly celebrated in the city.

THE SYMPATHY OF FRANCE IS MANIFESTED FOR THE NEW UNION.

Now it was that the question of international relations between the United States and other nations arose upon the attention of the American Congress and of several foreign governments. More than two years had elapsed since the outbreak of hostilities. More than one year had gone by since the Declaration of Independence; and the Americans were by no means subdued. Aye, more, they presented a bold front to the British, and had actually succeeded in expelling the armies of the mother country from at least one State of the new Union.

These circumstances were calculated to excite the interest and sympathy of foreign nations. From the outbreak of the war the people of France had been most friendly to the American cause. England and France were at peace; but the sympathy of the French court for the new American Republic could hardly be concealed. The ministers of Louis XVI. were not ready openly to provoke a war with Great Britain, but they secretly applauded the American colonists and rejoiced at every British misfortune. At length this sympathy was more outspoken. The Americans came to understand that if money was required France would lend it; if arms were to be purchased, France had arms to sell. During the year 1777 the French people in public and private capacity, by intrigue or direct merchandise, succeeded in supplying the colonies with twenty thousand muskets and a thousand barrels of powder.

The student of general history knows that at this epoch republicanism as a form of political thought and a dream of enthusiasm began to warm the mind of France, premonitory of the great Revolution. French Republicans and Idealists began to speak for the American cause and presently to embark under the warmth of their enthusiasm for the American shore. Foremost of all came Gilbert Motier, that young Marquis of Lafayette whose name was destined to be immortally associated with our struggle for Independence. Fitting a vessel at his own expense, he eluded the officers of the French ports—for he had been forbidden to sail—and with the brave Baron de Kalb and a small company of followers reached South Carolina in April of 1777. He entered the Continental army as a volunteer and private, but was rapidly promoted, and in July of this year was commissioned a major-general.



MARQUIS OF LAFAYETTE.

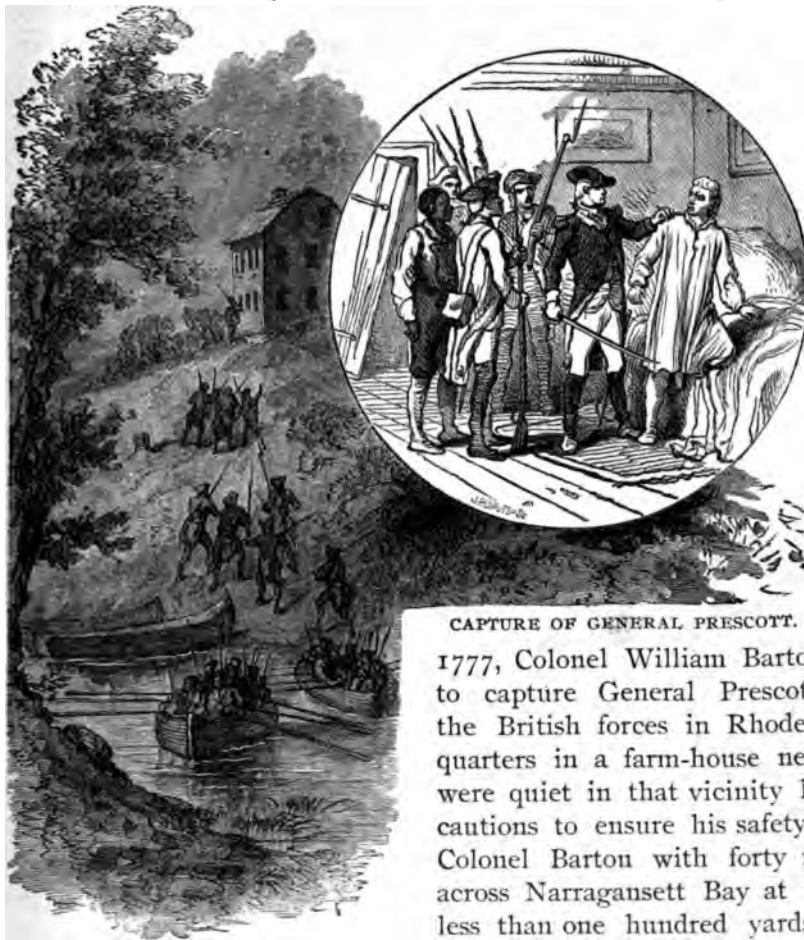
From a military point of view the British now began to beat about as though they would find a more advantageous method of attack. In considering the field of operations they set their eye on Canada. That province having remained loyal to the crown afforded by way of the St. Lawrence an easy avenue of entrance by which an army might be carried far into the interior of our continent and be brought, so to speak, upon the flank of the colonies, now the United States.

These considerations led to the planning of a great campaign for the year 1777. The expedition was entrusted to General John Burgoyne, who superseded Sir Guy Carleton in command of all the British forces in Canada. Burgoyne spent the spring in organizing an army of ten thousand men for the invasion of New York from the north. The forces consisted of British, Hessians and Canadians with a considerable contingent of Indian allies. The plan of the invasion embraced a descent upon Albany and New York City and the cutting off of New England from the middle and southern colonies.

By the first of June the expedition proceeded as far as Lake Champlain and on the 16th of that month Crown Point was taken. Here there was a pause, but on the 5th of July Ticonderoga, which was held by General Arthur St. Clair with three thousand men was captured. The garrison, however, escaped and retreated to Hubbardton, Vermont. The retreating force was pursued and overtaken near that place, but the Americans turning

upon the British fought so stubbornly as to check the pursuit. On the following day the British succeeded in capturing White Hall with a large quantity of stores which the patriots had collected at that place.

While affairs were thus somewhat favorable to the British in the extreme northwest, though they had lost Ticonderoga, the patriots in other sections were making themselves felt by delivering effective blows upon the enemy. On July 10,



CAPTURE OF GENERAL PRESCOTT.

1777, Colonel William Barton planned a bold stratagem to capture General Prescott, commander-in-chief of the British forces in Rhode Island. Prescott had his quarters in a farm-house near Newport, and as affairs were quiet in that vicinity he failed to take any precautions to ensure his safety. Learning the situation, Colonel Barton with forty militiamen in boats rowed across Narragansett Bay at night and landed in a cove less than one hundred yards from the house in which

Prescott, all unconscious of danger, was sleeping. Noiselessly Barton ascended the hill with his company and surrounded the house before his presence was detected. At the instant of alarm the half-sleeping sentinel who guarded the door was seized and in another moment the militiamen forced their way into the house, compelling a negro servant to show them the general's room. They captured him in his *robe de chambre* and then rushed their prisoner off to the waiting boats. So quietly was the capture effected that Barton suc-

ceeded in passing under the very stern of an English man-of-war without his presence being discovered and escaped with his distinguished prisoner to Providence, for which gallant service Congress presented him with a sword.

BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.

The American army of the north at this time numbered no more than four or five thousand men. It was under command of General Philip Schuyler and was posted at Fort Edward. On came the British to this place and the Americans were obliged to retreat down the Hudson. Fort Edward was taken on the 30th of July, but by this time the supplies of Burgoyne's army began to fail and he made a pause, sending out Colonels Baum and Breymann with strong detachments to seize the American stores at Bennington, Vermont. But Colonel John Stark rallied the New Hampshire militia and confronted the enemy. On the 15th of August he met the British near the village of Bennington and on the following morning there was a furious battle. The Green Mountain boys fought in a manner to remind the enemy of Lexington and Bunker Hill. Colonel Baum's force instead of gathering supplies was utterly routed, the British losing in killed, wounded and prisoners more than eight hundred men. It was really a staggering blow to the invasion and the country was thrilled with the news of the victory.

In the meantime a still greater reverse to Burgoyne had occurred in another part of the field. At the beginning of the campaign a large force of Canadians and Indians had been



BENNINGTON BATTLE-GROUND.



THE ALARM AT FORT SCHUYLER.

sent under General St. Leger against Fort Schuyler, on the Mohawk. On the 3d of August (1777) St. Leger reached his destination and invested the fort. General Herkimer on the other side rallied the militia of the country, but was defeated with the loss of a hundred and sixty men. About the same time the audacious Arnold had led a detachment from the Hudson for the relief of Fort Schuyler, but he employed a singular stratagem

to give the enemy an exaggerated idea of his forces. A half-witted boy was captured and holes being cut in his clothes similar to the marks of bullets he was promised his freedom if he would go into the camp of St. Leger and there exhibit the rents in his coat in proof of the narrowness of his escape and represent the Americans as leaves for number. This the boy did with such dramatic effect that the Indian allies of St. Leger broke and fled. The British commander, dismayed at their treachery and cowardice, raised the siege and retreated. This news also was borne to Burgoyne at Fort Edward.

Having failed in these two efforts to gather supplies from the invaded country Burgoyne was now obliged to halt for a month while military stores and provisions were brought down from Canada. Reports from every field of action being favorable the patriots gathered courage with each day and rallied to the standard of General Schuyler, until his force numbered nine thousand men, thus equalling the strength of the enemy. General Lincoln arrived with the militia of New England. Washington sent to the north several detachments from the regular army. Colonel Daniel Morgan came with his division of riflemen from the South—very dangerous men in battle. General Horatio Gates superseded Schuyler



BURGOYNE'S CAMP ON THE HUDSON.

in command of the northern army. By the beginning of fall the Americans were able to assume the offensive and on the 8th of September Gates's headquarters were advanced as far as Stillwater. At Bemis's Heights, a short distance north of this place, a camp was laid out and fortified under direction of the noted Polish engineer and patriot, Thaddeus Kosciusko.

THE DEFEAT AND CAPTURE OF BURGOYNE.

Already Burgoyne perceived before him a pathway of hazardous battles; but he must advance or ingloriously recede. On the 14th of September he crossed the Hudson and took post at Saratoga. Now the two armies came face to face. On the 19th a general battle ensued, continuing until nightfall. The conflict though severe was indecisive; but indecision with the Americans was victory. The latter retired within their lines and the British slept on the field. The condition of Burgoyne momentarily grew more critical. His supplies failed. His Canadian and Indian allies deserted his standard. His forces wasted away while those of his antagonist constantly increased.

By this time it became known at New York that the British army of the north was imperiled. General Sir Henry Clinton, the commander-in-chief, made most unwearied efforts to save Burgoyne from impending disaster. He organized an expedition, sailed up the Hudson and captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery; but nothing further could be accomplished. The diversion failed and Burgoyne became desperate. On the 7th of October he hazarded another battle in which he lost several of his bravest officers and nearly seven hundred privates. The accomplished British General Frasier, who commanded the right wing of Burgoyne's army, was killed on the field. His men disheartened at his fall, turned and fled. On the American side General Arnold was the inspiring genius of the battle. The result of the engagement was a complete victory for the Americans.

Burgoyne must now retreat. He began a retrograde movement and two days after the battle reached Saratoga. Here he was intercepted by Gates and Lincoln and the game was up. Nothing remained but capitulation or destruction. On the 17th of the month the terms offered by General Gates were accepted by Burgoyne, and the whole British army, numbering five thousand seven hundred and ninety-one men, became prisoners of war. Among the captives were six members of the British Parliament! Forty-two pieces of brass artillery, five thousand muskets and an immense quantity of stores were the added



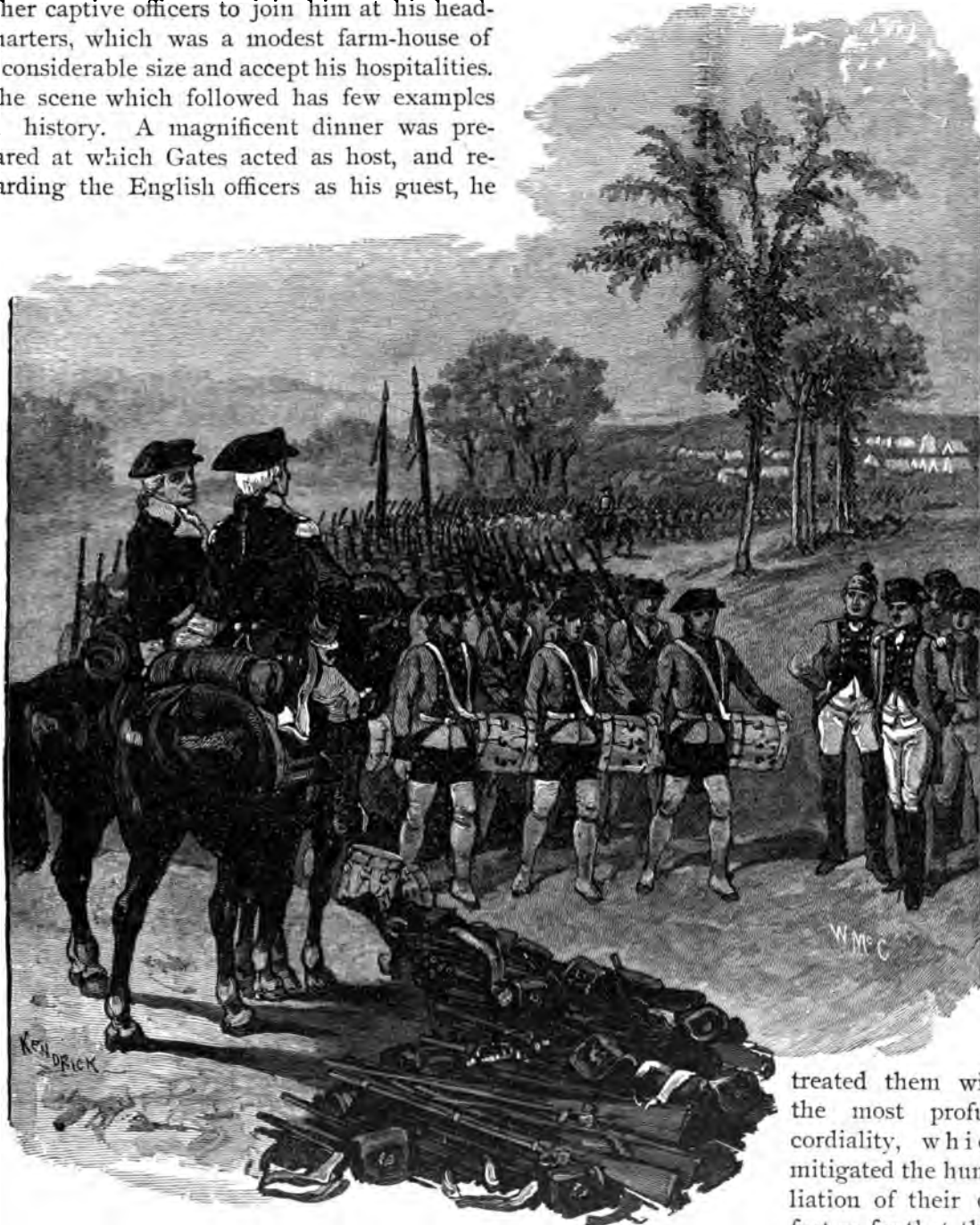
SCENE OF BURGOYNE'S INVASION.



MOLL PITCHER—THE HEROINE OF MONMOUTH.

fruits of the victory. The great invasion had ended in disaster to the British cause, overwhelming, total and final.

After the surrender, with rare magnanimity General Gates invited Burgoyne and the other captive officers to join him at his headquarters, which was a modest farm-house of inconsiderable size and accept his hospitalities. The scene which followed has few examples in history. A magnificent dinner was prepared at which Gates acted as host, and regarding the English officers as his guest, he



SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE.

treated them with the most profuse cordiality, which mitigated the humiliation of their defeat so far that they drank several hearty

bumpers to the health alike of their host and magnanimous victor.

In another part of the field, however, affairs had not gone well for the Americans. In

the south a great campaign had been in progress during the summer and the patriots were sorely pressed. On the 23d of July (1777) General Howe with eighteen thousand men had sailed from New York for an attack on Philadelphia. The plan of a land campaign across New Jersey was now abandoned for an expedition by sea and up the Bay of Delaware. The Americans, however, had obstructed that water and the British General, changing his plan, entered the Chesapeake with the design of reaching the head of the bay and from that point making the attack by land.

In order to meet this danger Washington advanced his headquarters from Philadelphia to Wilmington. At that place he drew in the detachments of his army to the number of nearly twelve thousand men. The forces of General Howe were vastly superior, but Washington was not without hope that he might be able to beat back the invaders and save the capital.

BATTLE OF THE BRANDYWINE.



GATES'S HEADQUARTERS, WHERE HE BANQUETED BURGoyNE AFTER HIS SURRENDER.

The British squadron made its way into the Chesapeake to the headwaters of the bay and the troops were landed at Elk River in Maryland. From that point the invasion was begun overland in the direction of Philadelphia. Washington placed himself in the path of the enemy and selected the small river Brandywine as his line of defence.

He stationed the left wing of his army at a crossing called Chadd's Ford, while the right, under General Sullivan, was extended for some distance up the river, for Washington could not discover with certainty at what point the enemy would attempt to cross. On the 11th of September the British reached the Brandywine and a battle was begun. The Hessians, under command of Knyphausen, attacked the American left at the ford; but the main division of the British, led by Cornwallis and Howe, marched up the right bank of the Brandywine and crossed at a point beyond the American right. General Sullivan was thus outflanked. Washington was misled by false information; the right wing was broken in by a charge of Cornwallis, and the day was hopelessly lost. A retreat ensued during the night and the Americans drew off in tolerable order to West Chester.

The loss of the Americans in the battle of the Brandywine amounted to a thousand men; that of the British to five hundred and eighty-four. General Lafayette was severely wounded. Count Pulaski so distinguished himself in this engagement that Congress honored him with the rank of Brigadier. Washington continued his retreat from West Chester across the Schuylkill to Germantown. On the 15th of September, however, he recrossed the river and joined battle with Howe at Warren's tavern. The engagement opened with a spirited skirmish and it was believed by both commanders that a decisive action was at hand; but just at the beginning of the conflict a violent tempest of wind and rain swept over the field and the combatants were deluged. Their cartridges were soaked and fighting was made impossible. Washington, however, still attempted to keep between the British and the city; but General Howe succeeded in crossing the Schuylkill and hastened onward to Philadelphia. On the 26th of September the city was taken without resistance and the main division of the British army was quartered at Germantown.

THE FIGHT FOR GERMANTOWN.

The loss of Philadelphia again made it necessary for Congress to remove its sittings. That body adjourned first to Lancaster and afterwards to York, where it continued to

hold its sessions until the next summer. The American headquarters were established on Skippack creek, about twenty miles from the city. Though the British had possession of Philadelphia, Washington, after his manner, was on the alert to strike a blow that might again, as in the case of Trenton and Princeton, reverse the condition of the contending parties. This he attempted to do on the night of the 3d of October, at Germantown, a suburb on the north of Philadelphia.

The movement, however, was impeded by the roughness of the roads. The advancing columns reached their destination at irregular intervals and the British outposts were thus able to concentrate and offer battle. The surprise was a failure ; but there was much severe fighting and at one time it seemed that the British would be overwhelmed. In the crisis of the battle, however, they gained possession of a large stone mansion, the residence of Judge Chew, and could not be dislodged. The Americans fought valiantly in their attempt to storm this position, but the tide of battle turned against them and the day was lost. Of the Americans about a thousand were killed, wounded and missing, while the total British loss was but five hundred and thirty-five.



BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN—ATTACK ON CHEW'S HOUSE.

Thus far, though the British held the capital, their position was precarious, or at least uncomfortable, from the fact that the Americans held control of the river Delaware. Two forts, Mercer and Mifflin, below Philadelphia, were garrisoned by the Americans, and the guns of the bastions were sufficient to command the river. On the 22d of October Fort Mercer was attacked by a Hessian force twelve hundred strong, led by Count Dunop ; but the assault was unsuccessful. Nearly one-third of those engaged in it fell before the American entrenchments. Coincidentally with this affair the British fleet made an attack on Fort Mifflin, on Mud Island. This place they besieged until the 15th of November, when the fortress becoming untenable was set on fire and the garrison escaped to Fort Mercer. On the 20th of the month this place also was abandoned to the British, and General Howe at last obtained full control of the Delaware.

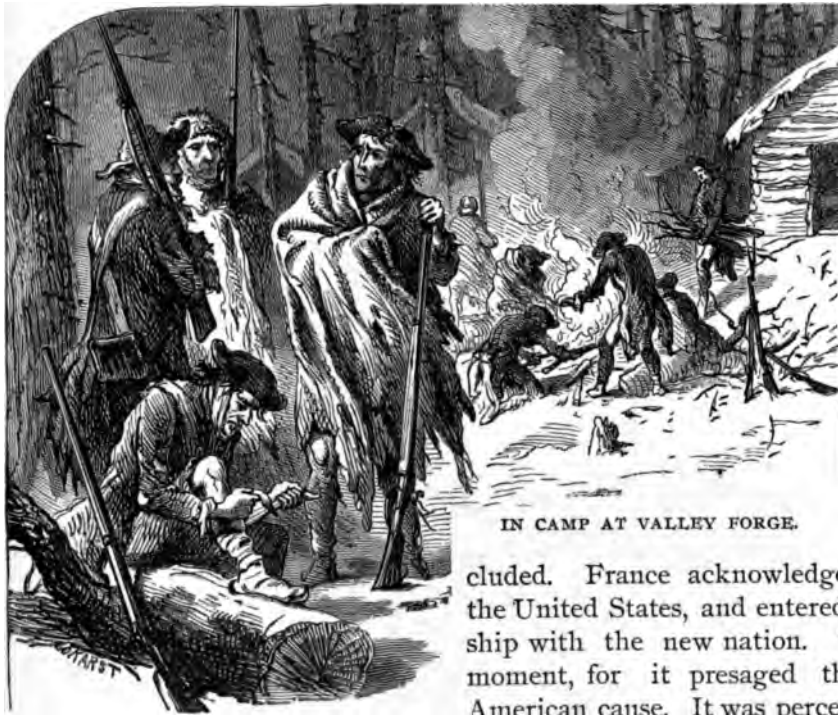
After the unsuccessful attack on Germantown Washington withdrew beyond the Schuylkill to a place called White Marsh and there established his headquarters. The patriots began at this time to suffer for both food and clothing. The colonies failed to send forward the requisite supplies for the support of the army. Meanwhile the British, though winter had set in, laid a plan to surprise Washington in his camp and overwhelm him and his forces. General Howe held a council of war on the evening of the 2d of December at the house of Lydia Darrah, in Philadelphia, and there the arrangements were made to march out and attack the Americans. But Mrs. Darrah, who overheard the plans of Howe, left the city on pretence of going to the mill, rode to

be equivalent to a war with England, and that the French court was at this time slow to undertake ; but private sympathy and secret aid to the Americans could be given without imperiling the general peace of Western Europe.

FRANKLIN NEGOTIATES AN ALLIANCE WITH FRANCE.

It was in this peculiar juncture of affairs and condition of opinion and policy that the genius of Dr. Franklin shone with a peculiar lustre. At the gay court of Louis XVI. he appeared as the representative of his country. His gigantic intellect, his reputation in science and his personal manners soon won for him at the French capital an immense reputation. His wit and genial humor made him admired ; his humanity and courteous bearing commanded universal respect ; his patience and perseverance gave him final success. He became at length the idol of the French people. During the whole of 1777 he remained at Paris and Versailles, leaving nothing undone that might conduce to the cause of his country.

At last came the news of Burgoyne's surrender. Franklin was enabled to inform the French ministers that a powerful British army had been conquered and captured by the



IN CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE.

colonists without aid from abroad. This marked success of the American arms and the influence of the French minister of finance, Beaumarchais, who for several years had been in correspondence with the American agents abroad, induced the King to accept the proposed alliance with the colonies. On the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty was con-

cluded. France acknowledged the independence of the United States, and entered into relations of friendship with the new nation. The event was of vast moment, for it presaged the final success of the American cause. It was perceived at a glance through-

out the civilized world that France had virtually taken up the gauntlet, and that Great Britain, in the multitude of her enemies, must ultimately yield, at least to the extent of acknowledging the independence of the American States.

This work, so far as human agency was concerned, was attributable to Benjamin Franklin. He was the author of the treaty—first compact between the new United States and a foreign nation. Franklin was at this time already an old man, according to the law of nature. He was in his seventy-third year, having been born in Boston on the 17th of January, 1706. His father was a manufacturer of soap and candles. At the age of twelve the boy Benjamin was apprenticed to his elder brother to learn the art of printing. In 1723 he went to Philadelphia, entered a printing office, and soon rose to distinction. He

visited England, resided a while in London, returned to Philadelphia, founded the first circulating library in America, edited *Poor Richard's Almanac*—wisest book of proverbs since the days of Solomon ; became a man of science ; discovered the identity of electricity and lightning ; prepared a constitution for the united colonies as early as 1755 ; espoused the patriot cause ; became the greatest representative of his country abroad, and devoted his old age to perfecting the American Union. To the end of days Benjamin Franklin will perhaps remain the most typical American of all his countrymen. Yet great as he was, his grave in Philadelphia is marked by nothing more than a simple slab of stone, from which the inscription is almost effaced.

Congress made haste to ratify the advantageous treaty with France. Already a month previously, namely, in April, 1778, a French fleet under Count d'Estaing had been despatched to America. Both France and Great Britain immediately prepared for war on an extended scale. At this juncture Great Britain would gladly have made peace with the Americans on any terms consistent with their return to allegiance and loyalty to the English crown. The King himself became willing to treat with his American subjects. Lord North, now at the head of the ministry, brought forward two bills in which everything which the colonists had claimed was conceded. The bills were passed by Parliament and the King gave his assent. Commissioners were sent to America, but Congress courageously informed them that an acknowledgment of the independence of the United States was a necessary preliminary to negotiations. Nothing short of that would now be accepted by the new Republic. It thus happened that the obstinacy of George III. and his ministers during the last four years had conduced to the ultimate success of the American struggle for independence and to the enlargement of the civil liberties of mankind.

IN HOT PURSUIT OF THE BRITISH.

Owing to these attempted negotiations, military operations were not opened with alacrity in the spring of 1778. The British army remained at Philadelphia until the month of June. The fleet of Admiral Howe lay in the Delaware. When it was learned, however, that the squadron of Count d'Estaing had sailed for America, Admiral Howe withdrew from his position in support of his brother in Philadelphia and sailed for New York. It was deemed more important that the latter city should be held against a possible attack of the French, but general Howe was unwilling to remain in Philadelphia without the support of his fleet. Accordingly, on the 18th of June, he evacuated the city and began to make his way across New Jersey. Washington at once marched into the metropolis and then followed the retiring British.

At Monmouth the enemy was overtaken on the 27th of June. On the following morning General Lee was ordered to make the attack. The American cavalry, under Lafayette, leading the charge, was at first driven back by Cornwallis. General Lee, instead of supporting Lafayette, ordered his line to retire to a stronger position. It appears that Lee's troops mistook the nature of the order and began a confused retreat. Washington was by this time at hand in person. He met the fugitives, rallied them and administered a severe rebuke to Lee. The battle then continued in a desultory and indecisive manner till night-fall. Such was the extreme heat that almost as many soldiers were prostrated thereby as fell in the fight. But Washington anxiously waited for the morning, still hoping for a decisive victory. During the night, however, the British forces under direction of Sir Henry Clinton were withdrawn and escaped unperceived from the American front.

The loss of the Americans in the battle of Monmouth was two hundred and twenty-seven ; that of the enemy much greater. The British left nearly three hundred dead on

the field. On the day after the battle Washington received an insulting letter from General Lee demanding an apology. It was in the nature of a challenge to a duel. Washington replied severely that his language on the previous day had been warranted by the circumstances. Lee answered in a still more offensive manner and was thereupon arrested. He was tried by court-martial and dismissed under reprimand from his command for twelve months. He never reentered the service and did not live to witness the achievement of independence.

After Monmouth the British forces made their way unmolested to New York. Washington followed, crossed the Hudson, and took up his headquarters at White Plains. Mean-



THE AMERICAN CAVALRY CHARGE AT MONMOUTH.

while the fleet of Count d'Estaing arrived, and on the 11th of July attempted to attack the British squadron in New York harbor. But the bar at the entrance prevented the passage of the French vessels. D'Estaing hereupon withdrew and made a descent on Rhode Island. General Sullivan was sent thither by land to coöperate with the French commander in an attack on Newport. The American forces were brought into position, and on the 9th of August Sullivan informed his ally of his readiness for battle on the following day. On that morning, however, the fleet of Admiral Howe came in sight and D'Estaing sailed out

to give battle to that enemy on his own element. But just as the two squadrons were about to begin a naval battle a storm arose by which the fleets were parted and both greatly damaged. D'Estaing sailed for Boston for repairs and Howe returned to New York.

As for General Sullivan, he undertook a siege of Newport without the coöperation of the French fleet, but was soon obliged to withdraw. The British followed in pursuit and a battle was fought in which the enemy was worsted, with a loss of two hundred and sixty men. On the following night Sullivan made good his withdrawal from the island and General Clinton returned to New York.

OUTRAGES BY GUERRILLAS AND INDIANS.

At this time the command of all the British naval forces operating on the American coasts was given to Admiral Byron. The year 1778 was noted for many irregular and desultory episodes of warfare not very creditable to those engaged, and having but little general effect upon the progress of the Revolution. Early in October a band of guerrillas led by Colonel Ferguson burned the American ships at Little Egg Harbor. Already in the preceeding July the Tory, Major John Butler, commanding sixteen hundred loyalists, Canadians and Indians marched into the Valley of Wyoming, Pennsylvania. The settlement was defenceless. On the approach of the Tories and savages, a few militia, old men and boys, rallied to protect their homes. A battle was fought, and the patriots without discipline or efficient command were routed. The fugitives fled into a rude fort which they had erected and which was soon crowded not only with the militia, but with the women and children of the settlement. Honorable terms were promised by Butler, and the garrison capitulated. On the 5th of July the gates were opened and the Canadians entered followed by the Indians. The latter and some of the former immediately began to plunder and kill. The passion of butchery rose with the work and nearly all the prisoners fell under the hatchet and the scalping-knife.

Four months later a similar massacre occurred at Cherry Valley, New York. The invaders in this instance were led by the celebrated Joseph Brandt, the half-breed chief of the Mohawks, and by Walter Butler, a son of Mayor John Butler. The people of Cherry Valley were driven from their homes without mercy. Women and children were tomahawked and scalped, and forty prisoners carried into captivity by the Indians. To avenge these outrages an expedition was organized and sent against the savages on the Susquehanna; these in their turn were made to feel the terrors of lawless war.

Meanwhile, in the preceding spring, Major George Rogers Clarke had marched against the Indians west of the Alleghanies. The expedition descended the Ohio nearly to the juncture of that stream with the Mississippi. On the 4th of July, Clarke, having marched with his command across the lower Illinois, captured Kaskaskia. Other important posts were taken, and on the 24th of February, 1779, Vincennes, the last stronghold of the British in the country of the Wabash was forced to capitulate.

The year was marked by more than a score of thrilling episodes in which brave frontiersmen either perished in defence of their homes or exhibited extraordinary courage in successful efforts to beat back the savages. Among the more distinguished heroes of this period were the Bradys and Wetzels, whose valorous deeds have served to perpetuate their names until the annals that describe the redemption of America from barbarism are no longer printed. The Bradys were singularly marked as victims of Indian savagery. Captain John Brady, a brave pioneer, was assassinated by three Indians as he was riding along a highway. James, the son of John Brady, with three companions, was set upon by a com-

pany of Indians; his comrades deserted at the first signs of danger, but he stood his ground and disdaining all overtures for surrender, fought with his back to a tree until ten bullets from guns of his enemies extinguished his brave life.

An elder brother, named Samuel, swore to avenge the death of James and thereafter devoted many years to satisfying his vengeance, in which service he rose to the very pinnacle of fame as a scout of unexampled daring, who passed through perils greater and more numerous perhaps than beset any other pioneer.

HEROISM OF THE WETZELS.

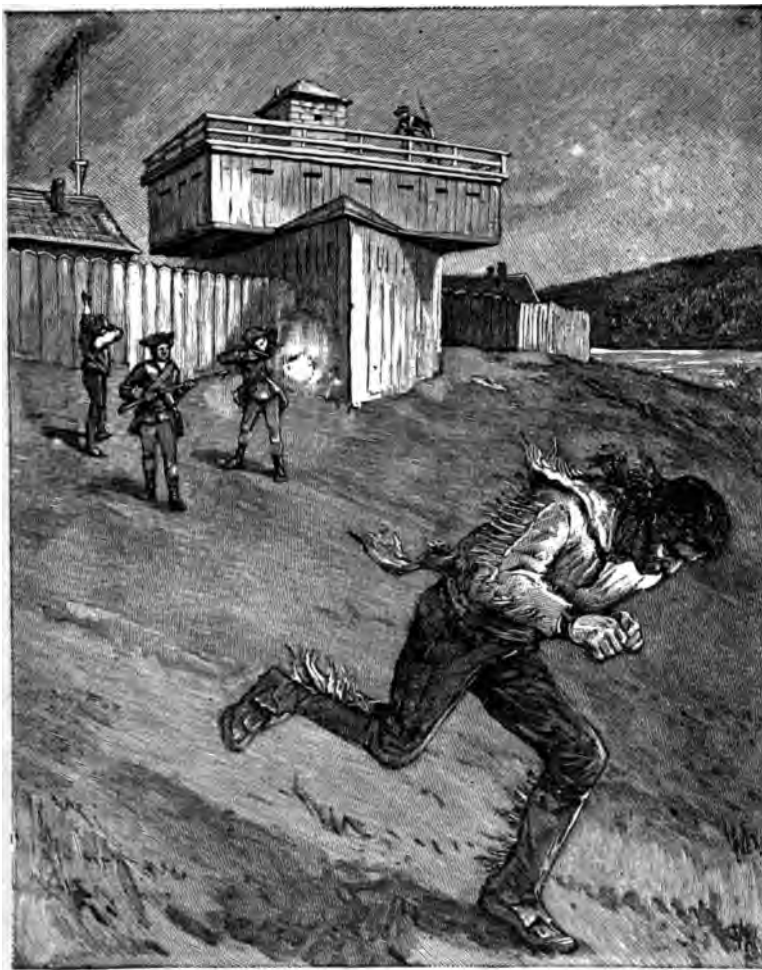
Equally famous as the Bradys were the Wetzel brothers, whose dashing daring has been made the subject of many a thrilling tale of adventure with Indians. The father, John Wetzel, an honest plodding Dutchman, built a cabin in the Ohio valley, but he had scarcely become settled and began clearing some of his ground when one day while working in the woods he was pitilessly murdered by lurking savages. Though a man indisposed to strife himself he was father to five sons who became desperadoes in their unappeasable thirst for a bloody vengeance. The eldest of these, named Martin, was soon after made captive by a band of Indians to whose life he adapted himself in order the more effectually to satisfy his desire for vengeance. While thus living on apparently amiable terms with the tribe into which he was adopted he contrived to kill no less than twenty before his criminal intents were discovered, and by this time he had retreated and was a leader of the settlers. Each of the brothers in turn became a sleuth-hound upon the tracks of the Indians, slaying at every opportunity and ever demanding the blood of atonement for their father's slaughter.

The youngest of the Wetzels was Lewis and he was the most implacable of the five. So great was his thirst for vengeance that when in 1787-88 efforts were made by General Harmar to make a treaty of peace with the Indians, Lewis opposed such temporizing measures and with many other settlers preferred to have the war go on until the savages were exterminated. When, therefore, a council was called at Fort Harmar, Wetzel waylaid



THE DEATH OF JAMES BRADY.

and shot an Indian who was on the way to the treaty ground. This act created such intense indignation that General Harmar set a price upon Wetzel's head, which incentive prompted a company of soldiers to set out upon his tracks and after a week's pursuit they arrested him while he was sleeping in the house of a friend. Securing him with heavy manacles they carried the desperate Indian hunter back to the fort, where he was kept under a close guard for some weeks. At length relaxing somewhat his severity under specious promises of the prisoner General Harmar permitted Lewis to exercise about the fort, but always under strict surveillance of two or more guards and never without handcuffs upon his wrist. On



THE ESCAPE OF LEWIS WETZEL.

one occasion, however, Wetzel seized the small opportunity offered for his escape and made a surprising dash for liberty. The guards were quick to detect his bold manœuvre and each fired at the fugitive but without effect. Running like a deer Wetzel plunged into a thicket, baffled all pursuit and managed to cross the Ohio, where he met a friend who relieved him of his fetters and he returned to his old vocation of killing Indians. Subsequently he was again arrested, but the settlers rallied to his defence and threatened an insurrection if he was not released. Under this pressure the court granted a writ of *habeas corpus* and again he was free. He was the hero of many escapades thereafter which were by no means creditable to his reputation as an Indian fighter, but desperado as he was, Lewis Wetzel died a natural death at Wheeling in the summer of 1808.

By the autumn of the year 1779 the naval contest had drifted somewhat abroad. On the 3d of November, Count D'Estaing's fleet sailed for the West Indies. In December, Admiral Byron finding little to occupy his restless fancy and ambitions at New York, sailed away to try the fortunes of war on the high seas. As to movements by land, Colonel Campbell, with two thousand men, was sent by General Clinton for the conquest of Georgia. On the 29th of December the expedition reached Savannah. Georgia was by much the weakest of all the colonies. Savannah was defended by a garrison of eight hundred men under command of General Robert Howe. The British attacked it and the Americans were soon

driven out of the city. The patriots retreated into South Carolina, and found refuge at Charleston. This, however, proved to be the only real conquest made by the British during the year—a conquest sufficiently insignificant.

REVERSES TO THE AMERICAN CAUSE.

The American Army went into winter-quarters for 1778-'79 at Middle Brook, New Jersey. There was much discouragement, much discontent among the patriot soldiers, for they were neither paid nor fed. Time and again the personal influence of Washington was required to prevent a general mutiny. In February of 1779 Governor Tryon, of New York, a Tory of the Tories, marched with fifteen hundred men against the salt-works at Horse Neck, Connecticut. Old General Putnam rallied the militia of the country, and made a brave defence; but the Americans were outflanked by the enemy and obliged to fly. It was here that General Putnam, when about to be overtaken, spurred his horse down a precipice and escaped.

With the opening of spring General Sir Henry Clinton looked around for a field of operations. In the latter part of May he sent an army up the Hudson to Stony Point, a fortress commanding the river. The garrison, unable to resist the overwhelming forces of the British, made good their escape from the fortifications. On the 1st of June, the British also captured Verplancks Point, on the opposite side of the Hudson. In July, Governor Tryon, with twenty-six hundred Hessians and Tories, made a sudden descent on New Haven, Connecticut, and compelled a surrender. The towns of East Haven and Fairfield were set on fire and burned to ashes. One of the traditions of the day runs to the effect that, at Norwalk, Tryon having ordered the burning of the village, sat in a rocking-chair on a neighboring hill and laughed heartily at the scene.

It was much to the disadvantage of the Americans that Stony Point, commanding the central Hudson, should be held by the British. Washington accordingly planned its recapture from the enemy. To this work he assigned General Anthony Wayne. That officer on the 15th of July, 1779, marched against the stronghold, and in the evening halted near the fort. His movements had not been discovered by the British. Wayne was enabled to make his plan of assault and issue his orders without attracting the attention of the enemy's pickets, who were presently caught and gagged in the darkness. Everything was conducted in silence. The muskets of the Americans were unloaded and the bayonets fixed. Not a gun was to be fired. Wayne waited until a little after midnight before ordering the assault. The patriots made the charge with great spirit, and scaled the ramparts. The British finding themselves between two lines of closing bayonets, cried out for quarter. Sixty-three of the enemy fell. The remaining five hundred and forty-three were taken prisoners. Of the Americans only fifteen were killed and eighty-three wounded. General Wayne, having secured the ordnance and stores, destroyed the fort and marched off with his prisoners.

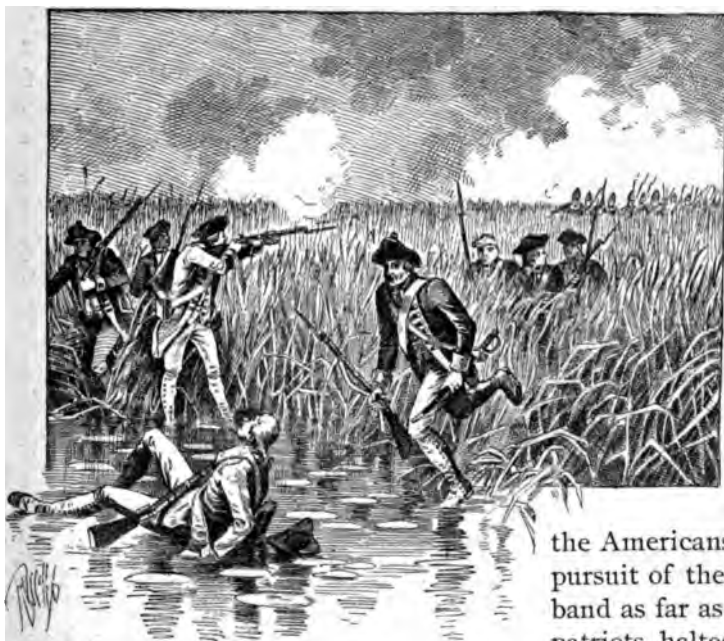
On the 18th of July, Major Lee with a detachment of patriots captured the British garrison at Jersey City. On the 25th of the month a fleet was sent to attack a post which the enemy had established at the mouth of the Penobscot. The squadron reached its destination, blockaded the mouth of the river, and began a siege. On the 13th of August, however, a British squadron appeared, superior in number of vessels and equipment, and falling upon the American fleet destroyed or captured the whole.

SUCCESSES AND REVERSES.

In the same summer it was found necessary to organize a campaign against the Indians in the country of the Susquehanna. An expedition of six hundred men was equipped and placed under command of Generals Sullivan and James Clinton. The American force

marched first against the savages and Tories who had fortified themselves at Elmira. This place was besieged, and on the 29th of August the enemy was routed from his stronghold and scattered in all directions. The country between the upper Susquehanna and the Genesee was then laid waste by the patriots, who destroyed forty Indian towns and villages before the campaign was ended.

On the part of the enemy some successes were achieved. On the 9th of January, 1779, a British force under General Prevost attacked and captured Fort Sunbury, on St. Catherine's Sound. Prevost was then assigned to the command of the British army in the south. A force of two thousand regulars and loyalists was despatched from Savannah for the capture of Augusta. On the 29th of January, the latter city was taken with but little resistance. In these days the southern colonies were greatly plagued by the Tory partisans of Great Britain, who organized in guerilla bands against their own countrymen. One of these companies under Colonel Boyd, advancing from the country districts to join the



DEFEAT OF THE AMERICANS AT BRIER CREEK.

British at Augusta, was attacked and routed by patriots under Colonel Anderson. On the 14th of February, the same body was again defeated by Colonel Andrew Pickens. Boyd and several of his men were killed, seventy-five others were captured, and five of the leading Tories hanged.

In this manner the western half of Georgia was quickly recovered by the patriots. Meanwhile a regular expedition under General Ashe had been sent out from Charleston to intercept the enemy. On the 25th of February,

the Americans crossed the Savannah and began pursuit of the British Colonel Campbell and his band as far as Brier Creek. At this stream the patriots halted, and, encamping with incaution, were surrounded by the British under General

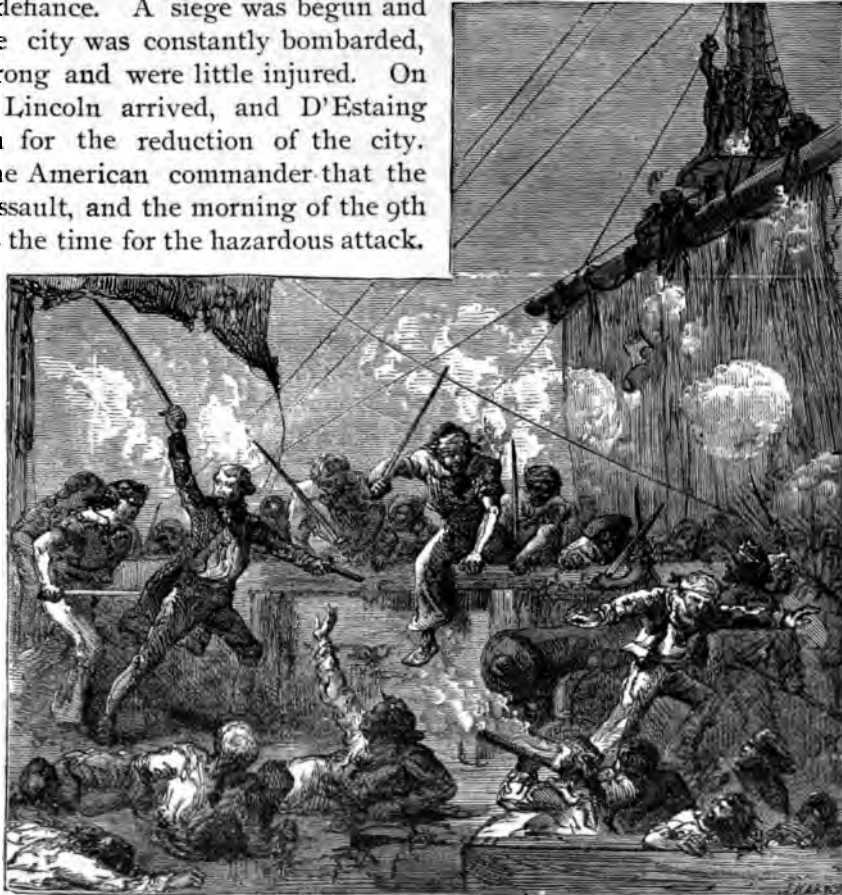
Prevost. A battle was fought on the 3d of March, and the Americans in total rout were driven in scattered bands into the swamps. By this victory of the British, Georgia was again prostrated and a royal government was established over the State.

The defeat of General Ashe was the dispersion, not the capture, of his division. The Americans soon rallied, and within a month General Lincoln, commandant of Charleston, was able to take the field with five thousand men. He proceeded up the Savannah River in the direction of Augusta; but at the same time his antagonist, General Prevost, crossed that stream and marched rapidly against Charleston. General Lincoln was obliged to turn back, and the British soon made a hasty retreat. The Americans followed, overtook the enemy at a place called Stone Ferry, ten miles west of Charleston, and attacked but were repulsed with considerable losses. Prevost, however, avoided battle, and fell back to Savannah. From June until September military operations were suspended, for the season was one of intense heat, and neither General chose to follow or engage the other.

UNSUCCESSFUL ATTACK ON SAVANNAH.

It was at this juncture of affairs that Count D'Estaing, who had been cruising with the French fleet in the West Indies, arrived at Charleston to coöperate with General Lincoln in the reduction of Savannah. Discovering the intent of the Americans, Prevost withdrew his forces within the defences of that city and stood at bay. On the 12th of September the French, numbering six thousand, effected a landing near Savannah and advanced to the siege. General Lincoln, however, was slow in arriving before the city. On the 16th D'Estaing, acting without the assistance of the Americans, demanded a surrender; but Prevost answered with defiance. A siege was begun and pressed with vigor. The city was constantly bombarded, but the defences were strong and were little injured. On the 23d of September Lincoln arrived, and D'Estaing entered into coöperation for the reduction of the city. At length he notified the American commander that the place must be taken by assault, and the morning of the 9th of October was named as the time for the hazardous attack.

Before sunrise on that morning the allied French and Americans moved forward against the British redoubts. At one time it seemed that the works would be carried, for the attack was made with great spirit and determination. The flags of Carolina and France were planted on the parapet, but they were soon hurled down by the British. It was in the *melee* along the walls that Sergeant Jasper, the hero of Fort Moultrie, was killed. The allied columns were driven back with fearful losses. Count Pulaski was struck with a grapeshot and borne dying from the field. D'Estaing retired on board the fleet; Lincoln retreated to Charleston; and Savannah remained in the hands of the British.



PAUL JONES BOARDING THE SERAPIS.

THE HEROISM OF PAUL JONES.

It was on the 23d of September in this year that Commodore John Paul Jones, cruising off the coast of Scotland with a fleet of French and American vessels, fell in with a British squadron, and a bloody and famous battle ensued. The *Serapis*, a British frigate of forty-four guns, engaged the *Bon Homme Richard*, the flag-ship of Paul Jones, in a deadly encounter. After a terrific cannonade the two ships came within musket-shot, and each was riddled by the fire of the other. At last the ships were lashed together. The

Americans, or rather the crew of the *Bon Homme Richard* (for that crew was made up of many nationalities) boarded the *Serapis*, and the latter was obliged in blood and fire and ruin to strike her colors. Already, however, the *Bon Homme Richard* had become unmanageable and was in a sinking condition. Jones hastily transferred his men to the conquered vessel, and his own ship went down. Of the three hundred and seventy-five men who composed Paul Jones's crew three hundred were either killed or wounded.

Thus indecisively and with certain heroic episodes ended the year 1779. The colonies had not yet won their independence. The French alliance, sad to say, had brought but



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT
MORRISTOWN.

little seeming benefit. The national treasury was bankrupt. The patriots of the army were poorly fed and were paid for the most part with unkept promises. Nor was there any weakening on the part of the enemy. Great Britain still supported the war with unabated vigor. True, her anger had now been diverted somewhat from the colonies to her ancient rival France; but Parliament and the King were still for war and the subjugation of America. The levy of sailors and soldiers now made amounted to a hundred and twenty thousand, while the expenses of the war department were raised to twenty million pounds sterling. The cloud of war rested

ominously over our thirteen struggling States and the day of independence still seemed far away.

The winter of 1779-80 Washington passed at his headquarters near Morristown while the main body of his army lay encamped on the southern slope of Kemball mountain, sufficiently near to be called into immediate service in case of necessity. The winter was so excessively severe as to retard operations, and was spent in no greater activity than watching the British on Staten Island and in foraging for provisions, for the army was so inadequately provided that self-preservation compelled a resort to marauding levies upon surrounding barnyards. The cold and privations were so great that the scenes at Valley Forge were reenacted, and but for the influence which Washington exerted his army would no doubt have mutinied, as it was more than once upon the eve of doing.



CHAPTER XVI.



AMERICA WINS THE BATTLE.

THOUGHTFUL reader of the history of the American Revolution can discern one significant fact, and that is that the British armies in America did not make war upon our fathers with their accustomed vigor. Was it possible that a lurking desire had pervaded these armies of England that the Americans might win the contest and go free? Certain it is that in many instances the war was waged in an easy-going and perfunctory way that might create the suspicion of an underlying and half-dormant sympathy of the British for the American cause. At any rate, there were seasons when the war almost ceased. This was true in the north during the greater part of the year

1780. Little was done on either side until midsummer. Early in July Admiral de Ternay, of the French navy, arrived at Newport with a large fleet and six thousand infantry under Count Rochambeau.

The Americans were greatly elated at the coming of their allies. By this event the conflict suddenly loomed up to vaster proportions than ever, and this fact greatly strengthened the faith of the patriots in their ultimate success. In September General Washington went to Dobb's Ferry, on the Hudson; was there met in conference by Count Rochambeau, and the plans of future campaigns were determined. These events, however, were all of importance that occurred in the north during the year 1780.

In the south, however, there was much desultory activity and the patriots suffered many and serious reverses. The southern colonies were weak. As we have said before they were also troubled with many nests of Tories, who for some reason not easily discoverable had chosen to turn upon their fellow-countrymen in a manner not very different from treason. During the year South Carolina was at one time completely overrun by the enemy. Admiral Arbuthnot came with a fleet of British ships and on the 11th of February anchored before Charleston. He had on board Sir Henry Clinton and an army of five thousand men. The city was feebly defended. General Lincoln, the commandant, had an effective force of no more than fourteen hundred. The British easily effected a landing and marched up the right bank of Ashley River to a position from which they might advantageously attack the city. On the 7th of April General Lincoln was reinforced by a brigade of seven hundred Virginians. Two days afterwards Arbuthnot succeeded in passing the guns of Fort Moultrie and came within cannon shot of the city.

THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON.

The siege of Charleston was now begun by land and water. General Lincoln sent out a regiment of three hundred men under General Auger to scour the country and keep open

communications through the district north of Cooper River. Apprised of this movement, Colonel Tarleton, commanding the British cavalry, fell upon Auger's forces at a place called Monk's Corner and dispersed or captured the whole company. The city was thus hemmed in. Such was the disparity between the contending forces that from the first the defence seemed hopeless. In a short time the fortifications crumbled under the cannonade of the British batteries and General Lincoln, perceiving that the city would be carried by assault, agreed to a capitulation. On the 12th of May Charleston was surrendered to the enemy and General Lincoln and his forces became prisoners of war.



SCENE OF OPERATIONS IN THE SOUTH, 1780-1.

Meanwhile Colonel Tarleton had continued his ravages in the open country. A few days before the surrender he surprised and dispersed a body of militia which had been gathered on the Santee. After the capture of Charleston three expeditions were sent into different parts of the State. The first of these was against the American post at the place called Ninety-Six. This station was captured by the enemy. A second detachment of British invaded the country of the Savannah. A third under Cornwallis crossed the Santee and captured Georgetown. Tarleton continued his depredations. At the head of seven hundred cavalry he fell upon the Americans under Colonel

Buford and on the Waxhaw charged upon and dispersed them in all directions.

By these successes the authority of Great Britain was nominally restored in South Carolina. For the present resistance seemed at an end. The patriots were beaten down and for the day remained in silence. Sir Henry Clinton and Arbuthnot, flattering themselves with the complete success of their expedition, now returned to New York, leaving Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon with a part of the British army to hold the conquered territory.

THE BRAVERY OF FRANCIS MARION.

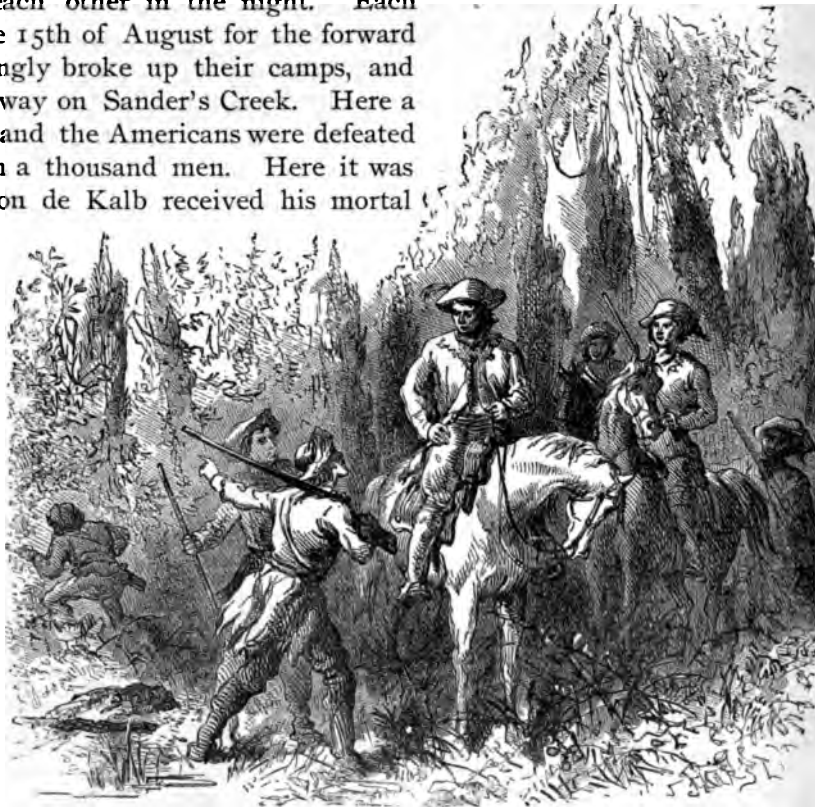
It was soon seen, however, that the spirit of patriotism was not extinguished. A number of popular military heroes appeared on the scene and gained for themselves an imperishable fame as the champions of the people. Such in particular were Thomas Sumter and Francis Marion. These brave men came as the protectors of the State. They rallied the militia here and there and began an audacious partisan warfare. Exposed detachments of the British were suddenly attacked and swept off here and there as though an enemy had swooped upon them from the clouds. At a place called Rocky Mount, Colonel Sumter burst upon a party of British dragoons who were glad to save themselves by flight. On the 6th of August he attacked another detachment of the enemy at Hanging Rock, defeated them and made good his retreat. It was in this battle that young Andrew Jackson, then but thirteen years of age, began his career as a soldier.

Marion's band consisted at first of twenty men and boys, white and black, half-clad, and poorly armed; but the number increased and it was not long until the "Ragged Regiment" became a terror to the enemy. It was the policy of Marion and Sumter to keep their headquarters and places of refuge in almost inaccessible swamps. From these coverts

they would suddenly issue forth by night or day and dart upon the enemy with such fury as to sweep all before them. There was no telling when or where the swords of these fearless leaders would fall. During the whole summer and autumn of 1780 Colonel Marion continued to sweep around Cornwallis's positions, cutting his lines of communication and making incessant onsets upon exposed parties of the British.

DEATH OF BARON DE KALB.

Washington now sent forward General Gates into the Carolinas with the hope of protecting the old North State and perhaps recovering the South. Learning of his advance, Cornwallis threw forward a large division of his forces under Lord Rawdon to Camden. Cornwallis himself followed with reinforcements, while the Americans concentrated at Clermont not far away. The sequel showed that both Cornwallis and Gates had formed the design of attacking each other in the night. Each selected the evening of the 15th of August for the forward movement. Both accordingly broke up their camps, and the two armies met midway on Sander's Creek. Here a severe battle was fought, and the Americans were defeated with a loss of more than a thousand men. Here it was that the distinguished Baron de Kalb received his mortal wound. A review of the battle showed that the American forces had not been managed with either ability or courage. The reputation of Gates as a commander was blown away like chaff, and he was superseded by General Greene.



RENDEZVOUS OF MARION AND HIS MEN.

In another part of the field the brave and dashing Carleton had avenged himself and the British cause by overtaking and routing the corps of Colonel Sumter at Fishing Creek. Sumter's division was put *hors du combat* by this defeat; but Marion still remained abroad leading the patriot partisans and greatly harassing the enemy. On the 8th of September the British advanced into North Carolina and on the 25th reached Charlotte without molestation. From this station Cornwallis sent out Colonel Ferguson with a mounted division of eleven hundred regulars and Tories to scour the country west of the River Catawba and to organize the loyalists of that section.

Ferguson reached King's Mountain, where he encamped at his ease; but on the 7th of October he was suddenly attacked by a thousand riflemen led by the daring Colonel Campbell. A desperate fight here ensued. Ferguson was slain and three hundred of his men were killed or wounded. The remaining eight hundred were forced into such close

About midnight of the 21st André reached the designated spot, went ashore from the ship *Vulture*, and met Arnold in the thicket. Daydawn approached before the nefarious business was done and the conspirators *entered the American lines*. André was obliged by this contingency to disguise himself, and by so doing he assumed the character of a spy.

The two ill-starred men spent the next day at a house near by and there the business was completed. Arnold agreed to surrender West Point for ten thousand pounds and a commission as Brigadier in the British army. André for his part received papers containing a description of West Point, its resources in men and stores, its defences and the best method of attack. Meanwhile, the *Vulture* lying at anchor in the Hudson had been discovered by some American artillery-men, who planted a battery and drove the ship down the river.

CAPTURE AND EXECUTION OF ANDRÉ.

When André finished his business with Arnold and would return to his ship he found the vessel gone. For this reason he was obliged to cross to the other side of the river and return to New York by land. He passed the American outposts in safety bearing Arnold's passport and giving the name of *John Anderson*.

At Tarrytown, however, he was confronted by three militiamen, John Paulding, David Williams and Isaac Van Wart, who arrested his progress, stripped him, found his papers and delivered him to Colonel Jameson at Northcastle. Through that officer's amazing stupidity Arnold was at once notified that "John Anderson" had been taken with his passport and some papers "of a very dangerous tendency!"



CAPTURE OF MAJOR ANDRÉ.

Arnold on hearing the news sprang up from his breakfast, exchanged a few hurried words with his wife, fled to the river, took a boat and succeeded in reaching the *Vulture*. The unfortunate André was thus left to his fate. He was tried by a court-martial at Tappan and condemned to death as a spy. On the 2d of October he was led to the gallows and under the stern code of war—though he pleaded vainly to be shot as a soldier—was hanged. Though dying the death of a felon he met his doom as the brave man goes to death, and oftentimes have not failed to commiserate his deplorable fate. Arnold for his part received his *pay*!

Thus drew to a close the year 1780. It did not appear that independence was nearer or surer than it had been at the beginning. In the dark days of December, however, there came a ray of light from Europe. For several years the people of Holland, like the French,

had secretly sympathized with the Americans and the government extended silent help and support to the cause in which they were engaged. After the conclusion of the alliance with France negotiations were opened with the Dutch for a commercial treaty similar to that which had been obtained by Franklin from the French court. The agents of Great Britain discovered the purpose of the Dutch government, but the latter was not to be turned from its intent. At first the British agents angrily remonstrated, and then on the 20th of December there was an open declaration of war. Thus the Netherlands were added to the alliance against Great Britain. It seemed that the King of England and his ministers would have enough to do without further efforts to enforce a Stamp Act on the Americans or to levy a tax on their imported tea.

Notwithstanding the advantage gained by the accession of Holland the year 1781 opened gloomily for the patriot cause. The condition of the army at times became desperate; no food, no pay, no clothing. In their distress the soldiers once and again became mutinous. The whole Pennsylvania line on New Year's Day broke from their barracks and marched on Philadelphia. At Princeton they were met by emissaries from Sir Henry Clinton, who tempted them with offers of money and clothing if they would desert the standard of their country. The mutinous patriots, however, were not of that mettle. They made answer by seizing the British agents and delivering them to General Wayne to be hanged as spies. For this deed the commissioners of Congress, who now arrived at the American camp, offered the insurgents a large reward, but this also was against the temper of the angry patriots, who though mutinous scornfully rejected the overtures of both friends and enemies. Washington knowing how shamefully the army had been neglected by Congress was not unwilling that the insurrection should take its own course. The Congressional agents were therefore left to adjust the difficulty as best they could with the rebellious troops.

EXECUTION OF MUTINEERS.

The success of the mutineers in obtaining their rights furnished a bad example to others who were discontented for less valid reasons. About the middle of January the New Jersey brigade stationed at Pompton revolted. This movement Washington deemed it necessary to put down by force. General Robert Howe was sent with five hundred regulars against the camp of the insurgents and they were obliged to submit to severe discipline. Twelve of the ringleaders were taken and obliged to execute two of their own number as a warning to the army. From that day to the close of the Revolution order was completely restored.

These insurrections had on the whole a good rather than a bad effect; Congress was thoroughly alarmed and immediate provisions were made for the better support of the army. Washington himself after having enforced order and discipline in the ranks wrote indignant letters to Congress in behalf of his suffering soldiery and that body was thus lashed into doing something for the better support and greater comfort of the men who were fighting the battle for independence. An agent of the government in the days of this emergency was sent to France to obtain a further loan of money. Robert Morris was appointed Secretary of Finance, and the Bank of North America was organized as the nucleus of a new monetary system for the country. Although the outstanding debts of the United States could not for the present be paid, yet all future obligations were promptly met. Morris and his friends pledged their private fortunes to the maintenance of the financial credit of the nation.

As to military operations the same were begun in the north by an expedition of

Arnold. That malign genius, after his treason, had succeeded in reaching New York, had received the promised compensation and accompanying commission as brigadier-general in the British army.

Before the setting-in of winter, namely, in November of 1780, Washington and Major Henry Lee, or rather the latter, with the consent of the former, had formed a plan to take Arnold prisoner. Sergeant John Champe was appointed to undertake the daring enterprise. The sergeant made a mock desertion from the army, fled to the enemy, entered New York, and with two assistants joined Arnold's company. These three concerted measures to abduct the



SERGEANT CHAMPE'S DEPARTURE.

traitor from the city and convey him to the American camp. The scheme had almost proved successful, but Arnold chanced to move his quarters to another part of the city and the plan was defeated. A month afterward he was given command of a fleet and a land-force of sixteen hundred men, and on the 16th of December he left New York to make a descent on the coasts of Virginia.

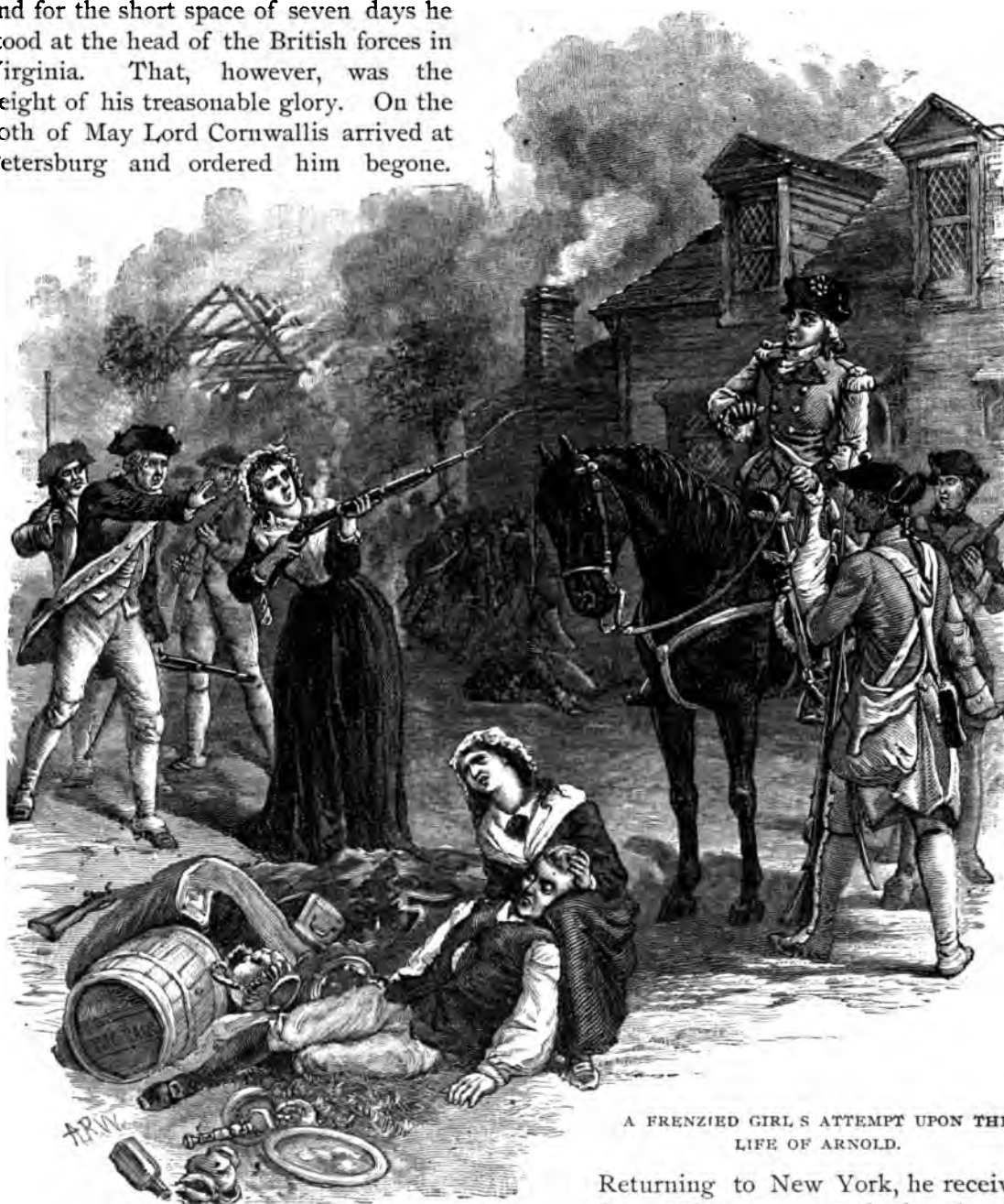
CAREER OF ARNOLD AS A BRITISH OFFICER.

The expedition reached its destination in the James River valley in January, 1781. There Arnold began his war on his countrymen. His expedition was a foray rather than a campaign, and his march was marked with many ferocious and vindictive deeds. It might be discerned, however, that the daring and ability which had characterized his former exploits were henceforth wanting. He was a ruined man. He had sold himself instead of his country. Weakness had come with crime, and the havoc of conscience and remorse were in him and around him. His command succeeded in destroying a large amount of public and private property in the vicinity of Richmond. The country along the James was laid waste until there was little left to excite the cupidity or gratify the revenge of the traitor and his followers. Arnold then took up his headquarters in Portsmouth, a few miles south of Hampton Roads.

The success of the expedition as a destroying force had been such as to induce Sir Henry Clinton to support the movement. About the middle of April he sent General Phillips to Portsmouth with a force of two thousand men. These were joined with Arnold's men and Phillips assumed command of the whole. A second time the expedition was directed through the fertile districts of lower Virginia, and pillage and devastation and fire marked the pathway of the invaders. Arnold had been humiliated by the fact that Phillips

was placed over him in command, for Clinton never gave his confidence to the man who had betrayed his country.

In a short time, however, death assisted the ambitions of the traitor by clutching General Phillips and sending him to the grave. This devolved the command on Arnold, and for the short space of seven days he stood at the head of the British forces in Virginia. That, however, was the height of his treasonable glory. On the 20th of May Lord Cornwallis arrived at Petersburg and ordered him begone.



A FRENZIED GIRL'S ATTEMPT UPON THE
LIFE OF ARNOLD.

Returning to New York, he received from Clinton a second detachment, with which he entered Long Island Sound, landed at New London in his new native State, and captured the town. Fort Griswold, which was defended by Colonel Ledyard, was taken by assault, but when the commandant surrendered, he and seventy-

three of his garrison were murdered in cold blood. The town was then set on fire and nearly every house of importance, including the custom-house, court-house, jail, market and churches, was consumed. It is a tradition that Arnold took his position in the belfry of a church and watched the destruction of the city. During this riot of massacre and holocaust Arnold rode through the streets and stimulated his soldiers in their work of murder and demolition, as if his savagery could never be glutted. It is related that a young woman, frenzied by the murder of her father and the ruin of her home, seized a loaded musket and in her desperation attempted the life of the traitor, a purpose in which she was only prevented by the gun missing fire. Moved by her bravery, no less than by her great sorrow, Arnold refused to punish the girl for attempting his life, leaving her amid the wreckage and slaughter that he had wrought.

BATTLE OF COWPENS.

We have already noted the change in commanders at the south. The American army, after its defeat at Sander's Creek, had concentrated at Charlotte, North Carolina, and passed under command of General Greene. By this time General Daniel Morgan had risen to great reputation in the south, and was trusted by Greene as one of his principal supporters. Early in January Morgan at the head of a considerable body of troops was sent into the Spartanburg district of South Carolina to repress the Tories. Thither he was followed by the able and daring Colonel Tarleton with the British cavalry. The Americans took position at a place called the Cowpens where, on the 17th of January, they were attacked by the enemy. Tarleton made the onset with his usual impetuosity, but Morgan's men bravely held their ground. After some hard fighting the American horse, under Colonel William Washington, made a charge and scattered the British dragoons in all directions. Ten of the enemy's officers and ninety privates were killed in the battle. The victory was decisive and Tarleton's force was for the time dispersed.

The intelligence of the fight at Cowpens astonished Cornwallis, but he hastily marched up the river in the hope of cutting off Morgan's retreat. General Greene, however, reached Morgan's camp and took command in person. Then began a long retreat of the Americans and pursuit by the British. On the 28th of January, 1782, the former reached the Catawba and crossed safely to the northern bank. Within two hours the British reached the ford with full expectation of continuing the pursuit in the morning, but during the night the rain poured down in torrents, the river was swollen to a flood, and it was many days before the British could cross.

Then began a race for the Yadkin. The distance between the two rivers was sixty miles, but in two days the Americans arrived at the Yadkin and had nearly completed the crossing when the British came in sight. That night the Yadkin also was made impassable by auspicious rains and Cornwallis suffered a second delay. Not until the 9th of February did he succeed in crossing to the northern bank. From this position the lines of retreat and pursuit lay nearly parallel to the north. A third time the race began, and for the third time the Americans won. On the 13th of the month Greene, with the main division of the army, safely crossed the Dan into Virginia.

DEFEAT AT GUILFORD COURT-HOUSE.

But it was not his purpose to continue retreating or to remain inactive at the end of the race. On the 22d of February, he returned to North Carolina. Meanwhile, Tarleton had been sent by Cornwallis into the region between the Haw and Deep rivers, to encourage a rising of the Tories. They came at his call, and about three hundred loyalist recruits rose

to him; but while they were marching to Tarleton's camp they were intercepted, cut off, and the whole company scattered by the patriot Colonel Lee.

Greene's army now numbered more than four thousand men, and the enemy under Cornwallis were of about equal strength. The American general decided to avoid battle no longer, and breaking his camp marched to Guilford Court-House. The British came on in the same direction, and on the 15th of March, the two armies met and joined battle. The action was severe but indecisive. The Americans lost the field, and were indeed repelled for several miles; but in killed and wounded the British suffered the greater losses.

After the battle of Guilford, Cornwallis decided to withdraw from the south in the direction of Virginia. His retreat was first to Wilmington, and then before the end of April, to his destination. The British forces in the south remained under command of Lord Rawdon. Greene did not at the first follow Cornwallis, but advanced into South Carolina, and captured Fort Watson on the Santee. He then took post at Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden. Here on the 25th of April, he was attacked by the British under Rawdon, and a severe battle was fought in which for a while victory strongly inclined to the American side. But Greene's centre, through some mismovement, gave way, and the day was lost.

After this engagement Lord Rawdon retired with his command to Eutaw Springs. It had now been discovered by the British that their various conquests in the thinly populated districts of the Carolinas brought them nothing but vacuity. Neither the sentiments of the people were changed nor was their ultimate ability to continue the war seriously affected by the British successes. The forces of the enemy after a victory would find themselves in an open country surrounded by a hostile population whom they could not strike, and it generally happened that the enemy was satisfied to return to some town or city where greater comfort might be found. After the retreat of Rawdon to Eutaw Springs the British posts at Orangeburg and Augusta were retaken by the patriots. The place called Ninety-Six was besieged by Greene, and was about to succumb when Rawdon turned back for battle, and the American commander deemed it prudent to retire, during the sickly months of summer, to the woody hill-country of the Santee.

In the interval that followed, Sumter, Lee and Marion with their partisan bands became more active than ever. These patriot leaders were constantly abroad in the saddle and smote the Tories right and left. It was at this juncture that Lord Rawdon went to Charleston and there became a principal actor in one of the most shameful scenes of the Revolution. Colonel Isaac Hayne, a patriot officer who had formerly taken an oath of allegiance to the King, was caught in command of a troop of American cavalry. His justification was that the oath which had been imposed on him by the conquest of the State by the British had been annulled by the reconquest of Carolina by the Americans; but this claim was treated with derision by a court-martial which was organized under Colonel Balfour, commandant of Charleston. Colonel Hayne was tried, condemned and under the sanction of Lord Rawdon was hanged.

BATTLE OF EUTAW SPRINGS.

With the subsidence of the heated season General Greene, on the 22d of August, marched towards Orangeburg. Rawdon hereupon fell back to Eutaw Springs, where he was overtaken by the Americans on the 8th of September. One of the fiercest battles of the war ensued, and General Greene was denied the decisive victory only by the unexpected bad conduct of some of his troops. He was obliged after a loss of five hundred and fifty men to give over the struggle, but not until he had inflicted on the British a loss in killed and wounded of nearly seven hundred. General Stuart, who commanded the British on

this field, now retreated to Monk's Corner, whither he was followed by Greene. Gradually the British outposts were drawn in, the country was given up, and after two months of manœuvring the entire force of the enemy was driven into Charleston.

In the whole south only this city and Savannah now remained in the power of the King's army ; and there were already premonitions that both of these would be abandoned. On the 11th of July, 1781, Savannah was actually evacuated, but Charleston remained in the occupation of the British until the 14th of December, 1782. Such was the close of the Revolution in the Carolinas and Georgia. The southern States had suffered most of all by the ravages of the enemy, and had been least able to bear such devastation. But with the recovery of independence there was an immediate revival, and the traces of war and disaster were soon obliterated.

The movement of Lord Cornwallis towards Virginia has already been noted. That General reached the Old Dominion in the early part of May, 1781, and took immediate command



CHARGE OF THE AMERICANS UNDER GREENE.

of the British army. Like his predecessors, Arnold and Phillips, he conducted in the first place a desolating expedition in the valley of the James. The country was ravaged and property, public and private, destroyed to the value of fifteen millions of dollars. Washington had entrusted the defence of Virginia to the Marquis of Lafayette ; but that brave young officer had an inadequate force under his command, and was unable to meet Cornwallis in the field.

The British General proceeded to the vicinity of Richmond without serious opposition, and sent out thence a detachment under Tarleton to Charlottesville, where the Virginia government had its seat. Tarleton moved with his accustomed rapidity, surprised the town and captured seven members of the legislature. Governor Thomas Jefferson barely saved himself by flight, escaping into the mountains.

The 6th of July was marked by an audacious episode in the campaigns of this year. General Anthony Wayne, leading Lafayette's advance, came suddenly upon the whole

Count de Grasse's fleet, numbering twenty-eight ships of the line with nearly four thousand infantry on board, had reached the Chesapeake and come to safe anchor in the mouth of York River. Already Cornwallis was securely blockaded both by sea and land.

THE SIEGE AND SURRENDER OF YORKTOWN.

The sequel showed that the French navy in its several parts was acting in concert. Just after the arrival of Count de Grasse came also Count de Barras, who commanded the French flotilla at Newport.

He brought with him into the Chesapeake eight additional ships of the line and ten transports; also cannon for the siege of Yorktown. By the beginning of September York River was effectually closed at the mouth and the Americans and the French began to strengthen their lines by land. On the 5th of the month the English Admiral Graves appeared in the bay with his squadron, and a naval battle ensued in which the British ships were so roughly handled that they were glad to draw off and return to New York. On the 28th of September the allied armies, now greatly superior in numbers to the enemy and confident of success, encamped closely around York-



AMERICANS CAPTURING A REDOUBT AT YORKTOWN.



SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN.

town, and the siege was regularly begun. The investment was destined to be of short duration. Tarleton, who occupied Gloucester Point on the opposite side of York River, made one spirited sally but was driven back with severe losses.

By the 6th of October the trenches had been contracted to a distance of only six hundred yards from the British works. From this position the cannonade became constant and

effective. On the 11th of the month the allies secured a second parallel only three hundred yards distant from the redoubts of Cornwallis. Three days afterwards, in the night, the

Americans made an assault, and the outer works of the British were carried by storm. At daydawn on the 16th the British made a sortie from their intrenchments, but were wholly unsuccessful. They could neither loosen the grip of the allies nor break through the closing lines.

On the 17th of the month Cornwallis proposed to surrender, and on the 18th terms of capitulation were drawn up and signed. At two o'clock in the afternoon of the 19th Major General O'Hara led out the whole British army from the trenches into the open field, where in the presence of the allied ranks of France and America seven thousand two hundred and forty-seven English and Hessian soldiers laid down their arms, delivered their standards and became prisoners of war. Lord Cornwallis, sick in his tent—or feigning sickness, as the tradition of the times asserted—did not go forth to witness the humiliation of his army. Washington for his part designated General Lincoln who was of equal rank with O'Hara, to receive his sword and represent the commander-in-chief. British marines to the number of eight hundred and forty were also surrendered. Seventy-five brass and thirty-one iron guns, together with all the accoutrements of Cornwallis's army, were the added fruits of victory.

DEMONSTRATIONS OF JOY AND PUBLIC THANKSGIVING.

Great was the enthusiasm of the country on the spread of this triumphant intelligence. A swift courier was sent with the news to Congress. On the evening of the 23d of October the messenger rode unannounced into Philadelphia. When the sentinels of the city called the hour of ten o'clock that night their cry was this: "Ten o'clock, starlight night, and Cornwallis is taken!" It was a fitting thing that the glorious proclamation of victory should thus be made under the benignant stars in the streets of that old town which first among the cities built by men had heard and attested the declaration that all men are created equal!

On the morning of the 24th of October, Congress joyfully assembled. Never before had that body come together, not even on the day of Independence, with so great alacrity and enthusiasm. Before the august assembly the modest despatches of Washington were read announcing the complete success of the allied campaign of Virginia and the capture of Cornwallis and his army. The members exulting and many weeping for gladness adjourned and went in concourse with the citizens to the Dutch Lutheran church, where the afternoon was turned into Thanksgiving day. The note of rejoicing sounded through the length and breadth of the land. Even the humblest took up the shout of emancipation and civil liberty; for it was seen that the dominion of Great Britain in America was forever broken.

The surrendered army of Cornwallis was marched under guard to the military barracks at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, there to await exchange or a treaty of peace. Washington with the victorious allies returned to his camps in New Jersey and on the Hudson. Not only in America, but on the continent of Europe as well, the news of the capture of Cornwallis was received with every demonstration of gladness. But in England the King and his ministers heard the tidings with mortification and rage. The chagrin and anger of the government was intensified by the fact that a large part of the English people were either secretly or openly pleased with the success of the American cause.

The popular feeling in Great Britain soon expressed itself in Parliament. During the fall and winter of 1781 the ministerial majority in that body fell off rapidly. The existent government tottered to its fall, and on the 20th of March, 1782, Lord North and his friends, unable longer to command the support of Parliament, resigned their offices. A new ministry was immediately formed, favorable to America, favorable to freedom, favorable to peace. It became apparent to all men that the independence of the United States was virtually achieved.

In the beginning of May the command of the British forces in the United States was transferred from Sir Henry Clinton to Sir Guy Carleton. The latter was known to be friendly to the cause of the Americans, and he accepted his appointment as the beginning of the end. Meanwhile the hostile demonstrations of the enemy, who were now confined to New York and Charleston, ceased, and the prudent Washington, discerning the advantages of moderation, made no efforts to dislodge the foe, for the war had virtually come to an end.

ENGLAND ACKNOWLEDGES AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

Congress now became active in the work of securing a treaty of peace. In the summer of 1782 Richard Oswald was sent by Parliament to Paris—a favorable omen ; for the object of his mission was to confer with Franklin and Jay, the ambassadors of the United States, in regard to the terms of an international settlement. Before the discussions were ended John Adams, arriving from Amsterdam—for he was American minister to Holland—and Henry Laurens, from London, came to Paris and were joined with Franklin and Jay in the negotiations. The commissioners became assiduous in their work, and on the 30th of November, 1782, preliminary articles of peace were agreed to and signed on the part of Great Britain by Oswald and on behalf of the United States by Franklin, Adams, Jay and Laurens. In the following April the terms were ratified by Congress, but the proclamation of peace was for a considerable season deferred.

This postponement of a public peace between the United States and the mother country was occasioned by the existing international complications. As soon as Great Britain discerned that American independence was a foregone conclusion she conceived the design of interposing herself between the new republic and France. It was clearly perceived that France, by her ready alliance with the Americans and her practical and successful support of their cause, had gained a great and perhaps permanent advantage in the affections of the new nation, and this circumstance was well calculated to arouse the extreme jealousy of the British nation and people.

England felt herself to be the parental State. True, there had been a war, but the war was now at an end. Could she not, therefore, reingratiate herself with her late colonies, recover her standing with them, resume her sway over their commerce and continue to gain as hitherto by the industries and products of the English-speaking race in the New World?

The condition was such as to test the fidelity of the Americans to their allies. The event showed, however, that a profound alienation had been produced in the hearts of the American people towards the mother country. They had suffered too much of wrong and oppression, of persecution and outpouring of life and scanty treasure to get over the wound and return with good-will to the embrace of the ancestral islands. Peace was, therefore, postponed, for France and England were still at war. It was not until the 3d of September, 1783, that a final treaty was effected between all the nations that had been in the conflict. On that day the ambassadors of Holland, Spain, England, France and the United States, in a solemn conference at Paris, agreed to and signed the articles of a permanent and definitive treaty of peace. Then it was that the American people might for the first time break forth into universal rejoicing over the achievement of national independence.

RETURN OF PEACE.

The treaty of 1783 was full, fair and sufficient for the new republic. The terms of the compact were briefly these : A full and complete recognition of the independence, sovereignty and equality of the United States of America ; the recession by Great Britain of Florida to Spain ; the surrender of all the remaining territory east of the Mississippi and

south of the great Lakes to the United States ; the free navigation of the Mississippi and the Lakes by American vessels ; the concession of mutual rights in the Newfoundland fisheries ; and the retention by Great Britain of Canada and Nova Scotia, with the exclusive control of the St. Lawrence.

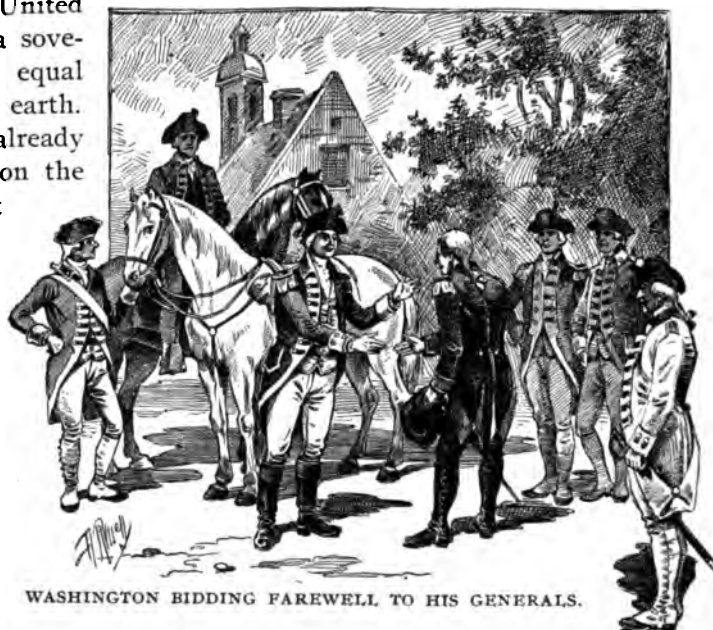
We may here note in a few words the final withdrawal from our shores of the military forces of the enemy. Early in August of 1783 Sir Guy Carleton received instructions to evacuate New York City. It was some time, however, before this could be conveniently accomplished. Three months were spent by the British officers in making arrangements for this important event. Finally, on the 25th of November, everything was in readiness and the British army was embarked on board the fleet. Then the sails were spread ; the ships stood out to sea ; dwindled to white specks on the horizon ; disappeared. The Briton was gone. With what sentiments must the American patriots from the wharves, the windows, the housetops of old New York have watched that receding squadron bearing away forever from the American coast that hateful force which had so long impeded the independence, the liberty, the nationality of the new United States ! Shall we say that the American of 1783, as he gazed on that November day adown the harbor of New York at the British fleet sinking behind the waters, exulted with mingled joy and hatred over the disappearance of his mortal foe ? Shall we believe that rather he remembered with anger and feelings of malevolent triumph his victory over the British King and ministry, and that his feelings towards the visible enemy, now becoming invisible across the sea, were those of a half-kindly regret and sympathy as for fellow-countrymen of a common race and tongue ?

However this may be, the conflict was over and the victory won. After the struggles and sacrifices of an eight years' war the old Continental patriots had achieved the independence of their country. The United States of America had become a sovereign, and might now take an equal station among the nations of the earth. As for Charleston, that city had already been evacuated by the British on the 14th of December, 1782. Thus at last were the American coasts, from the borders of Florida to the Penobscot, freed from the presence of the unnatural foe which had so long struggled with sword and intrigue and invasion to reduce the people of the colonies to subjection and political servitude.

AFFECTING SCENES.

The concluding scenes of the Revolution now passed rapidly, like the final acts of a drama.

On the 4th of December there was a most affecting scene in New York City. Washington assembled his officers and bade them a final adieu. When they were met the chieftain arose and spoke a few affectionate words to his tried comrades in arms. Washington was now in his fifty-second year, and had aged perceptibly under the arduous trials and



WASHINGTON BIDDING FAREWELL TO HIS GENERALS.

responsibilities of the long-continued war. His fidelity to the cause had led him to suffer much. We have already noted the fact that for six years after taking command of the army at Cambridge he never once revisited his home at Mount Vernon.

On the day of the separation, when he had ended his remarks he requested each of his officers to come forward in turn and take his hand. This they did, and with tears and sobs which they no longer cared to conceal the veterans bade him farewell. Washington then went on foot to Whitehall, followed by a vast concourse of citizens and soldiers, and thence departed en route for Annapolis, where Congress was in session. He paused on his way at Philadelphia and made to the proper officers a report of his expenses during the war. The account was in his own handwriting, and covered a total expenditure of seventy-four thousand four hundred and eighty-five dollars—all correct to a cent. The route of the chief from Pallus's Hook to Annapolis was a continuous triumph. The people by hundreds and thousands flocked to the villages and roadsides to see him pass. Gray-haired statesmen came to speak words of praise ; young men to shout with enthusiasm ; maidens to strew his way with flowers.

On the 23d of December, Washington reached Annapolis and was introduced to Congress. To that body of patriots and sages he delivered an address full of feeling, wisdom and modesty. Then with that dignity which always marked his conduct he surrendered his commission as commander-in-chief of the American army. General Mifflin, at that time President of Congress, responded in an eloquent manner, and then the hero retired to his home at Mount Vernon. It was evident to his countrymen and to all the world that he gladly relinquished the honors of command, the excitements and ambitions of war for the quiet and seclusion of his own home. The man whom only a year before some disaffected soldiers and ill-advised citizens were going to make king of America now by his own act became a citizen of the new republic which by his genius and sword had become a possibility.



CHAPTER XVII.

THE CONFEDERATION.



READER will remember that at the time of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence a committee had been appointed to prepare a frame of government for the United States. This committee had upon its hands a serious and difficult task. The sword of Great Britain suspended over the colonies made union necessary; but the long-standing independence of each tended to obstruct and hinder the needed consolidation. The Committee on Confederation reported their work to Congress in July of 1776. A month was spent in fruitless debates, and then the question of adopting the articles of union prepared by the committee was laid over until the following spring.

In April of 1777 the report on the Confederation of the States was taken up and continued through the summer. The war was now on in earnest. The power of Great Britain was overthrown in all the States, and each adopted a republican form of government for itself. The sentiment for national union made some headway; but there was on the part of many a covert purpose to win independence for the States severally instead of collectively, thus leaving each at the end of a successful war to pursue its own course in accordance with its old-time principles, policy and purpose.

ADOPTION OF THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

It was not until the 15th of November, 1777, that a vote was taken in Congress and the Articles of Confederation reported by the committee reluctantly approved. The next step was to transmit the new constitution to the several State legislatures for their adoption or rejection. The time thus occupied extended to the month of June, 1778, and even then the new frame of government was returned to Congress with many amendments. Each colonial legislature deemed itself able to improve in some particulars the work to which a committee of Congress had given a year of profound consideration.

Congress, however, was constrained by the nature of its own constitution to consider, and indeed to adopt, with many alterations and amendments, the clauses which had been added to the articles by the colonial assemblies. The most serious objections of the people were thus removed, and the Articles of the Confederation were signed by the delegates of eight states on the 9th of July, 1778. Later in the same month the representatives of two other states, Georgia and North Carolina, affixed their signatures. In November the delegates of New Jersey acceded to the compact; and in February of 1779 the representatives of Delaware added the signature of that small commonwealth. Maryland, however, still held aloof, and it was not until March of 1781 that the consent of that State was finally obtained. It thus happened that the war of the Revolution was nearly ended before the new system of government was fully ratified.

The reader will not fail to discover in these circumstances the essentially military character of the Revolution of 1776. The civil revolution lagged behind. Doubtless the rational patriotism of the times was greatly discouraged and at times disgusted with the folly of the people acting in their civil capacity. It would seem in the retrospect that so easy and democratic a form of government as was contemplated under the Articles of Confederation would have been at once and gladly accepted by the people, anxious to obtain a more efficient frame and organ of civil authority; but not so. Everywhere there was cavil, objection, opposition, delay. Meanwhile the Congress of the Revolution, so-called, was obliged to labor on without the powers or prerogatives of government. Certainly but for the abilities, sound principles and courage of the leaders in the field the whole Revolutionary movement must have ended in a complete and dismal failure.

Thus at the end of the War of Independence the United States found themselves under the Articles of Confederation. The government so instituted was a sort of democratic republic. It presented itself under the form of a Loose Union of Independent Commonwealths—a Confederacy of Sovereign States. Both the executive and legislative powers of the government were vested in a Congress. That body was to be composed of not fewer than two nor more than seven representatives from each state. These representatives were to constitute a single House—no Senate or Upper House was provided for. Congress could exercise no other than delegated powers. The sovereignty was reserved to the States. The most important of the exclusive privileges of Congress were the right of making war and peace, the regulation of foreign commerce, the power to receive and send ambassadors, the control of the coinage, the settlement of disputed boundaries and the care of the public domain. There was no president or chief magistrate of the republic; and no general judiciary was provided for. The consent of nine States was necessary to complete an act of legislation. In voting in Congress, each State was by its delegates to cast but a single ballot. The union of the States, or their confederation, thus established was declared to be perpetual.

TRIALS THAT CONFRONTED THE NEW GOVERNMENT.

Until March of 1781, when the Articles of Confederation were finally ratified by Maryland, the government—if such it might be called—continued to be directed by the Continental Congress. On the day, however, of the ratification of the Articles by Maryland the Congress of the Revolution adjourned, and on the following morning reassembled under the new form of government. Almost immediately it became apparent that that government was inadequate to the exigencies of the times. In the first place it contradicted the doctrines of the Declaration of Independence. It was found that the power of Congress under the Articles was no more than a shadow; that shadow instead of being derived from the people emanated from the States and these were declared to be sovereign and independent. There was therefore no nationality, and indeed the movement towards nationality was greatly obstructed by the frame of government which was presumptively in its favor. It was fortunate indeed that the War of the Revolution was already virtually at an end before this alleged new government was instituted. The sequel showed that under trial the Articles of Confederation might have proved to be an agent of miscarriage and confusion in the very presence of the enemy.

The first duty which was devolved on the new government was to provide for the payment of the war debt, which had now reached the sum of thirty-eight million dollars. Congress could only recommend to the several States the levying of a sufficient tax to meet the indebtedness. Some of the States made the required levy; others were dilatory,

others refused. Thus at the very outset the government was balked and thwarted, and this too in one of the most important essentials of sovereignty. Serious troubles attended the disbanding of the army; and these also were traceable to the weakness of the new system. The soldiers must be paid; but how could Congress pay from an empty treasury? It was rather the inability than the indisposition of that body which led to the embarrassment of the times.

The princely fortune of Robert Morris was, at this crisis, exhausted in the vain effort to uphold the credit of the country. He himself was brought to poverty and ruin, and finally abandoned to his fate by the very power which he had contributed so much to uphold. For three years after the treaty of peace the public affairs of the new nation were in a condition bordering on chaos. The imperilled state of the republic was viewed with alarm by the sagacious patriots who had brought the Revolution to a successful issue. It was seen in a very short time that unless the Articles of Confederation could be replaced with a better system, the nation would be dissolved into its original elements.

We shall not in this connection recount the immediate circumstances which led to the abandonment of the Articles of Confederation and the substitution therefor of a new Constitution. Suffice it to say that from 1783 to 1787 the civil powers of the United States tended strongly to disintegration and ruin. Washington spoke the truth when he said in infinite sorrow that after all the sacrifices of the war for independence the government of his country had become a thing of contempt in the eyes of all nations. It was really a government of shreds and patches, and the conviction forced itself upon the minds of the more thoughtful that a new political system would have to be devised or else the fruits be lost of the heroic struggle in which the patriots of 1776 had achieved the possibility of national existence.

TERRITORY OF THE GREAT WEST.

Before concluding the present chapter, we may note with interest two of the important works accomplished by that go-between system of government known as the confederation. More properly we should say two of the important works accomplished by some of the *great men* who, hampered by the confederative system, still wrought at the problem of nationality. The first of these was the organization of the Territory Northwest of the River Ohio. It will be remembered that the campaigns of George Rogers Clarke, in the year 1778-'79, had wrested from the British the vast domain between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. This region was held by the united colonies at the time of the treaty of 1783. The rule of *uti possidetis*, therefore, prevailed; the parties to the compact should "hold as much as they possessed."

Thus the territory of the new United States was extended westward to the Father of Waters. But how should this great domain be brought under organization and put in process of development? As a preliminary measure, the vast region in question was ceded to the United States by Virginia, New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut. For the government of the territory an ordinance was drawn up originally by Thomas Jefferson, and finally adopted by Congress on the 13th of July, 1787. By the terms of the ordinance it was stipulated that not fewer than three nor more than five States should be formed out of the great territory thus brought within the possibilities of civilization; that the States when organized should be admitted on terms of equality with the Old Thirteen; that a liberal system of education should be assured to the inhabitants of the new commonwealths; and

that slavery or involuntary servitude, except for the punishment of crime, should be forever prohibited therein.

Over the new territory General Arthur St. Claire, then President of Congress, was appointed military governor; and in the summer of the following year he established his headquarters at Marietta and entered upon the duties of his office. Out of the noble domain over which the authority of the English-speaking race was thus extended the five great States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin were destined in course of time to be organized and admitted into the Union.

A second measure of this epoch is worthy of particular notice, as it insured to the people of the United States the not unimportant advantages of an easy and scientific system of money and account. Up to the last quarter of the eighteenth century the monetary systems of the different nations had been—as they still are in many instances—inconvenient in the last degree. In the Old Thirteen colonies the monetary count had been by guineas, pounds, shillings and pence, after the manner of the mother country. With the achievement of independence some of the American statesmen became dissatisfied with the monetary system that had hitherto prevailed and proposed a newer and better.

The leader of this movement, as in the case of the organization of the northwest territory, was Thomas Jefferson. As early as January of 1782 he had turned his attention to the moneys current in the several States, and had urged Robert Morris, the Secretary of Finance, to report a uniform system to Congress. The work of preparing the report was intrusted by the Secretary to Gouverneur Morris, who prepared a system based on that of existing foreign coins, chiefly those of Great Britain.

Against this report Jefferson objected. He himself prepared what he calls in his Memoirs a new "system of money-arithmetic." "I propose," he said, "to adopt the DOLLAR as our unit of account payment, and that its divisions and subdivisions shall be *in the decimal ratio*." Hereupon a controversy sprang up between Jefferson and the officers of the treasury; but the former carried his measure to Congress and prevailed. His system was adopted, and the benefits, we might almost say the blessings, of decimal coinage and accounting were forever secured to the people of the United States.

It was thus that the independence of the Thirteen United Colonies of North America was achieved. The work had been undertaken with scarcely a prospect of success. In the light of the retrospect it were difficult to conceive by what agency or agencies the colonies could succeed in a war with the mother country. The disproportion in resources between Great Britain and America was very great. The British monarchy was already one of the oldest and most substantial political structures in the world. On our side there was no structure at all. Everything as yet in America remained not only local, but peculiar and individual. A general government had to be formed in the very front and teeth of the emergency. The sentiment of union could not be immediately evoked in the midst of such a people and under such conditions. The colonies were as weak for war as they were poor in those resources with which every warlike enterprise must be supplied. On the other hand, Great Britain was in these particulars as strong as the strongest. Nevertheless, the battle went against the strong and in favor of the weak. It was an issue settled by righteousness, and fortune, and truth rather than by the might of superior armies.

BOOK THIRD.

Epoch of Nationality.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION.



REAT was the distress of the new United States under *their* so-called Articles of Confederation. The Revolutionary tumult had not died away until the more thoughtful patriots discovered the essential weakness of their frame of government. The confederation was indeed neither the one thing nor the other. It was neither distinctly *national* nor clearly *local* in its character. It partook more of the nature of what the Germans call the *Stattenbund*, or State-league, than of the nature of the *Bundesstaat*, or true union. It was clear to the statesmen of the period that no effectual consolidation of the States had been accomplished by the confederation, and that another movement of a different and more radical character would be necessary to secure a real union of the United States of America.

It is not needed in this connection to recount the many and diverse projects which the wisdom of the time suggested in the direction of establishing a better government for the new American nation. The real impulse towards the remodelling of the existing system appears to have originated at Mount Vernon and in the thought and heart of Washington. It will perhaps never be known precisely to what extent the Father of his Country accepted and adopted the thoughts and suggestions of others respecting the new frame of government, and to what extent his notions were excogitated from his own slow but capacious mind. There were at the epoch under consideration many thinkers of larger and more active intellectuality than was Washington. Such personages were accustomed to correspond with the sage of Mount Vernon, to visit and converse with him and to discuss the civil condition and political needs of the new republic. Perhaps it was out of such elements that the project of remodelling the Articles of Confederation at length took vital form.

However this may be, Washington, in the year 1785, in conference with certain statesmen at his own home, advised the calling of a convention to meet at Annapolis in the following year for the general consideration of the political and commercial needs of the nation. The proposition was received with favor, and in September of 1786 the representatives of five

States assembled at Annapolis. The question of a tariff on imports was discussed, for that was the fundamental business of the meeting, and then the attention of the delegates was turned to the subject of revising the Articles of Confederation.

Such a work seemed to be demanded by every interest of public policy. Since, however, only a minority of the States were represented in the conference, it was resolved to adjourn until May of the following year. All the States were in the meantime to be urgently requested to send representatives to the second meeting. The interest of Congress was awakened, and that body invited the legislatures of the several States to appoint delegates to the proposed convention.

To this invitation all the State assemblies except that of Rhode Island responded favorably. The motives of such a movement were actively present in all parts of the country. A ruined credit, a bankrupt treasury, a disordered finance, a crazy constitution and a government without vital energy or prerogative all seemed to appeal to the patriotic mind as the strongest possible incentives to the movement for a better constitution. It was under such impulses that the people were sufficiently lifted above their prejudices to give a measure of favor to the proposal for a convention; and accordingly on the second Monday in May, 1787, the representatives of the various States assembled at Philadelphia. Such was the origin of the Constitutional Convention.

THE QUESTION AT ISSUE.

Washington had lent himself with zeal to the project. He came to the convention as a delegate from Virginia, and was at once chosen president of the body. It appears in the light of the retrospect that at the first the common understanding was that the business in hand was to remodel the Articles of Confederation. About fifty of the leading citizens of the United States were present as delegates, and their first deliberations looked no further than the modification of the existing system, so as to give to it a greater efficiency and power of administration. A few leading spirits in the convention, however, such as Washington, Franklin, Charles Pinckney and Madison, saw further than this, and it was not long until the issue of making a new constitution was sprung upon the convention. Indeed, with the progress of debate it became more and more evident that no mere revision of the old form of government would suffice for the future of America.

It was on the 29th of May that Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, introduced a bold resolution to set aside the old Articles of Confederation and to adopt a new constitution. This proposition brought out a great and long-continued debate. A committee was finally appointed to revise the existing frame of government, but with large liberty to consider the whole question at issue. The committee went into session, and it was not until the beginning of September that a report was submitted. The report was essentially the present Constitution of the United States. The debate thereon was renewed. Many modifications, changes and amendments were made in the report of the committee, but a draught which finally came from the pen of Gouverneur Morris was adopted. This in its turn was sent to a committee of revision, of which Alexander Hamilton was chairman, and he it was who gave to the instrument its final touches. These included the prefixing of the Preamble, which makes the Constitution of the United States to proceed *from the people* instead of from the States, thereby giving to it an air and expression of nationality for which we should look in vain in other parts of the instrument.

As soon as the Constitution was prepared and adopted by the convention of 1787 copies of the instrument were made out and forwarded to the several legislatures for ratification or rejection. It was already known that the people of the States were far from

unanimous on the question of the proposed new government. They were divided in their sentiments and opinions first of all as to whether it was *desirable* to have any consolidated union of the States, but more particularly they were divided as to whether, granting the desirability of the proposed union, the Constitution prepared by the convention of 1787 was desirable as the fundamental law of the land.

It soon appeared indeed that a great majority of the people were, for the time at least, in the negative on both these questions. The danger from the oppressions and tyranny of Great Britain had now passed away. Independence had been secured. Local independence seemed to satisfy, and the desirability of nationality and union was not strongly felt by the average patriot of 1787.

THE BIRTH OF POLITICAL PARTIES IN AMERICA.

It was out of these conditions that the first great political agitation of our country was engendered. Those who favored the new frame of government were called Federalists; those who opposed, Anti-Federalists or Republicans. The leaders of the former party were Washington, Jay, Madison and Hamilton, the latter statesman throwing the whole force of his extraordinary genius and learning into the controversy. In those able papers called the *Federalist* he and Madison and Jay successfully answered every objection of the Anti-Federal party. It was in this noble argumentation that Hamilton won the place of first and perhaps greatest expounder of constitutional liberty in America. To him the republic owes a debt of perpetual gratitude for his part in establishing on a firm and enduring basis the present constitutional system of the United States.

The contest in the several States in the union was heated and protracted. In each State an election was held by the people, and delegates chosen to a convention by which the proposed Constitution was to be adopted or rejected. In several States the opposition had a majority. It was found, however, on the assembling of the conventions that the principles on which the opposition rested had already been sapped and destroyed, at least in their vital elements. The supporters of a consolidated union had everywhere gained ground. The *Federalist* had been scattered into every State, and its arguments had prevailed over all except unconquerable prejudice. Nevertheless it was an open question whether the people would accept the new government prepared by the convention of 1787.

The little State of Delaware was the first to answer, and her answer was in the affirmative. In her convention on the 3d of December, 1787, the voice of the commonwealth was unanimously recorded in favor of the new Constitution. Ten days later Pennsylvania gave her decision by a vote of forty-six to twenty-three in favor of ratification. On the 19th of the same month the New Jersey convention added the approval of that State by a unanimous vote, and on the 2d of December, Georgia followed with the same action. Then on the 9th of January came the decision of the Connecticut convention, rendered with a vote of a hundred and twenty-eight to forty in favor of adoption.

In Massachusetts the Constitution encountered the most serious opposition. Much of the ancient Puritan democracy was set against it. Patriotism was suspicious of the proposed union. Patriotism saw in the President provided for by the Constitution a new sort of king, and in the whole system a new sort of monarchy to be substituted for the hereditary monarchy which had been destroyed. The battle for adoption was hard fought and barely won. The ballot taken in the convention on the 6th of February, 1778, resulted in ratification by the close vote of a hundred and eighty seven to a hundred and sixty-eight. The decision of Massachusetts, however, virtually decided the contest. On the 28th of the following April Maryland gave her decision by the strong vote of sixty-three to twelve.

Next came the convention of South Carolina, in which the vote for adoption was carried by a hundred and forty-nine to seventy-three.

In New Hampshire there was another hard struggle, as indeed there was in all parts of New England. But the vote for adoption finally prevailed by fifty-seven to forty-six, June 21st, 1788. This was the *ninth State* in the affirmative, and the work was done. For by its own terms the new government was to go into operation when nine States should ratify. Thus far the great commonwealth of Virginia had hesitated. There, too, the spirit of democracy and localism was rampant. Washington and Madison were for the Constitution; but Jefferson and Henry were opposed. Not until the 25th of June did her convention declare for adoption, and then only by a vote of eighty-nine to seventy-nine.

OBSTINACY OF CERTAIN STATES.

It was now clear throughout the country that the new government would be organized, and this fact was used as a powerful argument in favor of adopting the Constitution by the convention of New York, at Poughkeepsie. The hope that New York city would be the seat of the Federal government also acted as a motive. Two-thirds of the convention had been chosen on a platform of pronounced opposition to the Constitution; but the minority, under the powerful lead of Hamilton, gradually gained in the debates, until July 27th, 1788, when a motion to ratify was finally carried by a fair majority.

Only Rhode Island and North Carolina now persisted in their refusal. But in the latter state a new convention was called, and on the 13th of November, 1789, the Constitution was formally adopted. As to Rhode Island, her pertinacity was in inverse ratio to her importance. At length Providence and Newport seceded from the commonwealth; the question of dividing the territory between Massachusetts and Connecticut was raised and a wholesome alarm produced among the people. The little refractory State at last yielded by adopting the Constitution May 29th, 1790. The new government had already been organized for thirteen months so that Rhode Island was virtually admitted into a Union already existent. Then for the first time the English-speaking race in the New World, with the exception of the remote Canadians, was united under a common government strong enough for safety and liberal enough for freedom.

A DIGEST OF THE CONSTITUTION.

What, then, was the instrument which the American people thus adopted for the civil government of themselves and their posterity? The Constitution of the United States provides that the governmental powers of the republic shall exist under three general heads—Legislative, Executive and Judicial. The legislative power is vested in Congress—a body composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The members of the Senate are chosen by the legislatures of the several States and serve for a period of six years. Each State—whatever may be its area and population—is represented by two Senators. The members of the House of Representatives are elected by the people of the respective States; and each State is entitled to a number of Representatives proportionate to the population of that State. The members of this branch are chosen for a term of two years. Congress is the law-making power of the nation, and all legislative questions of a general character are the appropriate subjects of Congressional action.

The executive power of the United States is vested in a President, who is chosen for a period of four years by a body of men called the Electoral College. The electors composing the college are chosen by the people of the several States for the particular purpose of electing a President and Vice-President. Each state is entitled to a number of electors in

the college equal to the number of its Senators and Representatives in Congress. The duty of the President is to enforce the laws of Congress in accordance with the Constitution. He is commander-in-chief of the armies and navies of the United States. Over the legislation of Congress he has the power of veto; but a two-thirds Congressional majority may pass a law, the President's veto to the contrary notwithstanding. He has the right of appointing cabinet officers and foreign ministers; but all of his appointments must be approved by the Senate. The treaty-making power is likewise lodged with the President; but in this also the concurrence of the Senate is necessary. In case of the death, resignation or removal of the President, the Vice-President becomes chief magistrate, or Acting-President of the United States; otherwise his duties are limited to presiding over the Senate.

The judicial power of the United States is by the Constitution vested in a supreme court and in inferior courts established by Congress. The highest judicial officer is the Chief Justice. All the judges of the supreme and inferior courts hold their offices during life or good behavior. The jurisdiction of these courts extends to all causes arising under the Constitution, laws and treaties of the United States. The right of trial by jury is granted in all cases except the impeachment of public officers. Treason against the United States consists only in levying war against them or in giving aid and comfort to their enemies. Nor can the charge of treason be established against any person except on the concurrent testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act.

The Constitution further provides that full faith shall be given in all the States to the records of every State; that the citizens of any State shall be entitled to the privileges of citizens in all the States; that new territories may be organized and new States admitted into the Union on conditions of equality with the old; that to every State shall be guaranteed a republican form of government; and that the Constitution may be altered and amended whenever such alteration or amendment shall be proposed by a two-thirds majority of both Houses of Congress and ratified by three-fourths of the legislatures of all the States. In accordance with this last provision, fifteen amendments have been made to the Constitution. Most important of these are the articles which guarantee religious freedom, change the method of electing President and Vice-President, abolish slavery and forbid the abridgment of suffrage on account of race or color.

A CRITICISM OF THE CONSTITUTION.

It is a theme of the greatest importance, now that more than a century of time has elapsed since the adoption of the Constitution, to inquire into its effectiveness, and more particularly to note its defects in practical application as the fundamental law of the American people. Among the latter may be noticed first of all the too extensive power and domination of the President. A President of the United States, once elected and inaugurated, becomes for the time a more powerful ruler, a more absolute monarch we might say, than is the occupant of any of the enlightened thrones of Europe. It is clear in the light of the retrospect that the framers of the Constitution did not *intend* that the President should be a temporary sovereign in the sense that he has become in practice. A second evil relates to the same office, and this pertains to the manner of the President's election. The will of the people is not fairly and well expressed by the cumbrous intervening electoral college provided for in the Constitution. The Presidential election in the United States is not sufficiently popular and direct. The choice of the chief magistrate should be like every other function of the government—of the people, for the people and by the people—according to the aphorism of Lincoln. This it cannot be so long as the complicated and machine-like electoral college is interposed as the agent and organ of the quadrennial election.

In the third place, it is clear in the retrospect that the fathers erred in fixing the term of the Presidency at four, instead of six or seven years. The extension of the term to the latter period should of course imply ineligibility to reelection, thereby assuring to the people an administration totally free from the prevalent intent, manner and method of preparing for a reelection of the incumbent and the maintenance of his partisans in office. Nothing can be more disastrous to the integrity of the national government than its conversion by the President and his party into a machine for his reelection. On the other hand it may be truly said that the period of four years is hardly sufficient for the establishment of a given administration and the attestation of its policy.

Among the powers of the Presidential office is that of appointing a cabinet. This idea sprang partly out of the exigencies of the case, and was partly caught from the existing system of Great Britain. The American method has virtually proved a failure. The error lies in the fact that the responsibility of American cabinet officers appertains to the *President*, instead of to *Congress*. In this regard the English system is greatly superior to that of the United States. The President appoints certain of his own partisans to be what are called his constitutional advisers. As a matter of fact, they become simply the head-men of his party retinue. They have and can have no independent advice to give to the administration. They are virtually the President's men. The various secretaries have no power of originating policies and presenting and defending the same before Congress; nor have the people any check upon objectionable cabinet officers. It is within the power, and unfortunately within the practice, of American Presidents to keep in office at the head of important cabinet departments men whom four-fifths of the American people would join in ejecting from their places. The abuse which has arisen in this respect under our Constitution is serious and deep-seated.

CRITICISM OF THE CONGRESSIONAL SYSTEM.

As to the Senate of the United States, there is a great and radical error in the Constitution of the body in that the members are chosen by the *States*, as it were in their official capacities, instead of by the *people*. The Senators are elected by the legislatures of the several States. The manner of senatorial elections has in many instances become corrupt and disgraceful to the extent of filling the Senate Hall of the United States with men far below the grade of statesmen.

But the more crying evil does not lie in the dangerous methods employed in senatorial elections, but rather in the fact that all the States, great and small, are, under our Constitution, made equal in the upper House of Congress. Rhode Island and Delaware have two Senators each, and so have New York, Ohio and Texas. The system is undemocratic, un-republican. It is against the genius of American institutions. It contradicts the doctrines of the Declaration of Independence. The Senators instead of being chosen by the people of Senatorial districts, laid off according to area and population, and with little or no regard for State lines, are elected by the local legislatures of the different States, two for each, without regard to their magnitude and importance. The Senate of the United States is, therefore, not a representative body. It offends the spirit and principle of popular government, and if we mistake not the system which now prevails under the Constitution will not stand the ordeal of public opinion in the times to come.

As to the House of Representatives, the system of election is sufficiently popular and equitable. The error in this respect is the too frequent recurrence of Congressional elections. Three years, instead of two, should be the minimum for the repetition of those partisan agitations which now biennially sweep the country to the distraction of industrial

enterprises, the confusion of all arts and progress, the embitterment of the public mind, and the jubilee of demagogues. In all of these particulars it were possible under our Constitution to make amendments which should conduce greatly to the civil and political advantage of the American people.

ELECTION OF THE FIRST PRESIDENT.

In accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and a resolution of Congress, the first Wednesday of January, 1789, was named as the time for the election of a President. In this matter the people had but one voice. All eyes were turned instinctively to the man who should be honored with the chief magistracy of the United States. The election was held, and early in April the ballots of the electors were counted in the presence of Congress. George Washington was unanimously chosen President and John Adams Vice-President of the new republic.

On the 14th of the month Washington received notification of his election and departed for New York. His route thither overland was a constant triumph. Maryland welcomed him at Georgetown. Philadelphia, by her executive council, the trustees of her university, and the officers of the Cincinnati, honored him as their guest. How did the people of Trenton exult in the presence of the hero who twelve years before had fought their battle! There over the bridge of the Assanpink they built a triumphal arch, and girls in white ran before singing and strewing the way with flowers. Arriving at Elizabethtown, he was met by the principal officers of the government and welcomed to the capital where he was to become the first chief magistrate of a free and grateful people. Thus came he to old New York, and after a few days of rest and preparation was ready to take upon himself the duties of the Presidential office.



JOHN ADAMS.

CHAPTER XIX.

FIRST THREE ADMINISTRATIONS.



was on the 30th of April, 1789, that Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States. The new government was to have begun its existence on the 4th of March; but the event was delayed by unforeseen circumstances for nearly two months. The inaugural ceremony was performed on the balcony of the old City Hall, on the present site of the Custom House, in Wall Street. Chancellor Livingston of New York administered the oath of office. The occasion was observed with great rejoicings throughout the city and the whole country. The streets and housetops of New York were thronged with people; flags fluttered; cannon boomed from the battery. As soon as the public ceremony was ended Washington retired to the Senate chamber and delivered his inaugural address. The organization of the two Houses of Congress had

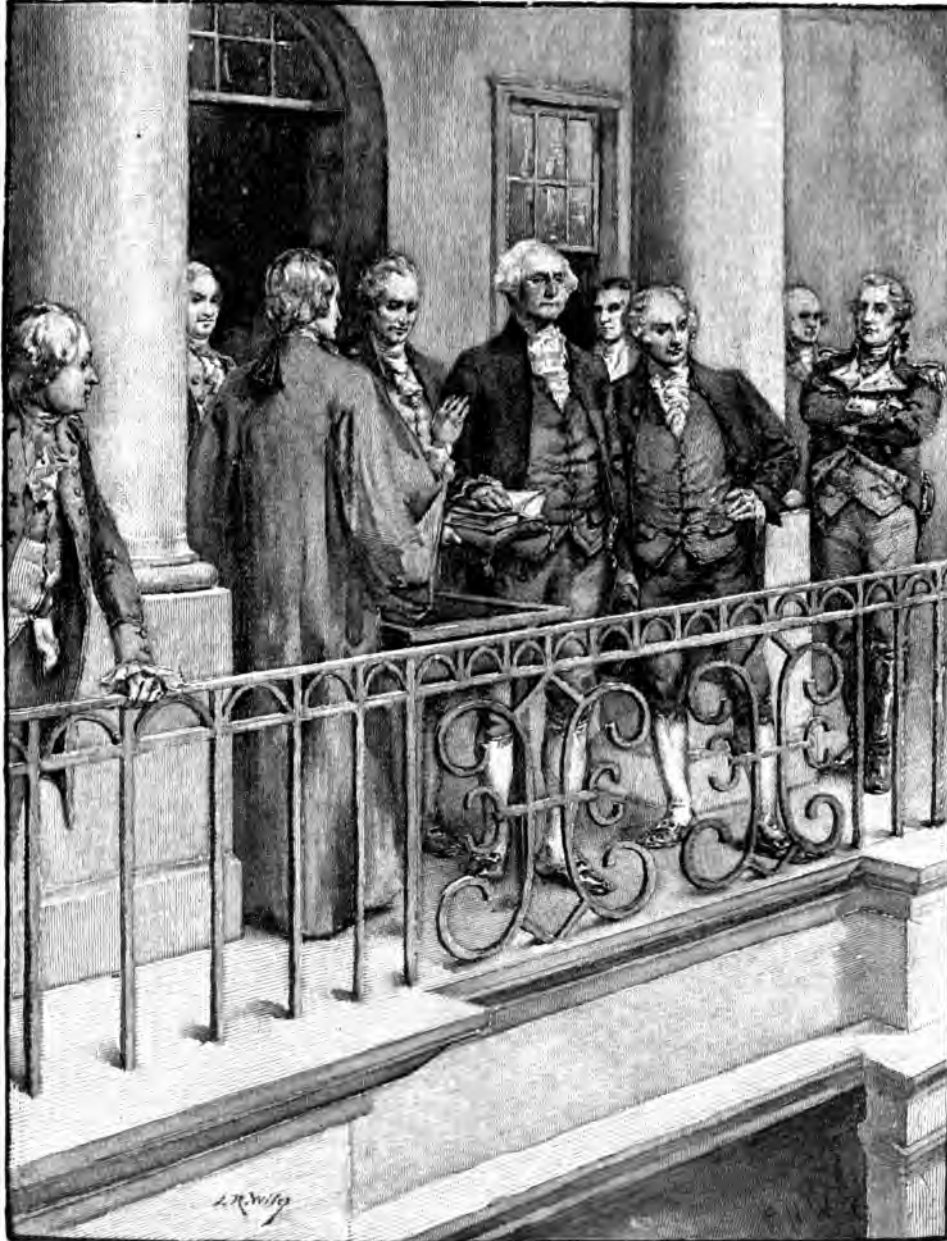
already been effected, so that the inauguration of the President completed the ceremony of instituting the new government under the Constitution.

That government was, however, at the outset embarrassed with many and serious difficulties. They who had opposed the adoption of the Constitution now became a party, cavilling at the new order of things and in particular at the measures of the administration. By the treaty of 1783 the free navigation of the Mississippi had been guaranteed to vessels of the United States. Now the jealous Spaniards of New Orleans hindered the passage of American ships. The people west of the Alleghanies looked to the great river as the natural outlet of their commerce and the duty was devolved on the government of protecting them in their rights and making good their expectations of the future.

On many parts of the frontier the Indians, for good reason dissatisfied with their displacement from their ancient hunting-grounds, were hostile and did not hesitate to make war on the American frontiersmen. As to financial credit, the United States had none. In the very beginning of his arduous duties Washington was prostrated with sickness. For several weeks he was confined to his couch, and when at length he was measurably restored the evidences of rapidly approaching old age were still more distinctly seen upon him. In the interim of his sickness the business of government was much delayed.

It was not until September that the first important measures were adopted by the new administration. On the 10th of that month an act was passed by Congress instituting a department of foreign affairs, a treasury department and a department of war. As members of his cabinet Washington nominated Jefferson, Hamilton and Knox; the first as Secretary of Foreign Affairs, the second of the treasury and the third of war. In accordance

with the provisions of the Constitution a Supreme Court was also organized, John Jay receiving the appointment of first Chief Justice. With him were joined as Associate Justices John Rutledge, of South Carolina ; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania ; William Cushing,



WASHINGTON TAKING THE OATH AS PRESIDENT.

of Massachusetts ; John Blair, of Virginia ; and James Iredell, of North Carolina. Edmond Randolph received the appointment of Attorney-general.

THE ANTAGONISM BETWEEN JEFFERSON AND HAMILTON.

Nothing could more clearly illustrate the spirit and purpose of Washington than the non-partisan character of the administration which he thus began. His thought was to

avoid the division of the American people into parties, and to unite the best opinions and the best men of whatsoever views in the support of the government. At this time no two public men in America were more pitted against each other than Jefferson and Hamilton. The first represented those extreme democratic views which had prevailed in the Declaration



Jefferson. Knox. Randolph. Hamilton. Washington.
WASHINGTON AND HIS CABINET.

of Independence. The other was the embodiment of extreme federalistic opinion. The one wholly distrusted the new system of government because of its alleged monarchical tendencies; the other would fain have given to that government additional powers and prerogatives. The two leaders stood at the extremes of the political thought of the epoch, and yet Washington called them both into his cabinet! He made no discrimination against either, but sought to utilize in support of his administration the talents and genius of both.

At this time many constitutional amendments were brought forward, and ten of them adopted. Some

of the States had accepted the Constitution *on condition* that certain amendments should be accepted. Other States, as North Carolina and Rhode Island, had refused to adopt until amendments which they desired should be approved by Congress. By the action of that body in accepting ten of the proposed amendments, the objections of the two jealous States were removed, and both, by ratifying the Constitution, came into the Union, thus completing the circle of the old Thirteen Colonies.

Such were the first important acts of the Congress of 1789. On the 29th of September that body adjourned until the following January. Washington availed himself of the opportunity thus afforded to make a tour of the Eastern States. Accompanied by his secretaries he set out in his carriage from New York on the 15th of October, traversed Connecticut, and in nine days arrived at Boston. Everywhere on the route the affection of the people, and especially of the Revolutionary veterans, burst out in unbounded applause. At Boston the President was welcomed by John Hancock, then governor of the State, and by the selectmen of the city. No pains were spared that could add to the comfort and pleasure of the new chief magistrate. After remaining a week among the scenes associated with his first command of the American army he proceeded to Portsmouth, and thence, with improved health and peace of mind, by way of Hartford to New York.

QUESTIONS OF ETIQUETTE.

It was at this time that many peculiar questions arose respecting the formalities and methods of administering the government. One of the most troublesome of these related to the ceremony and etiquette which ought to prevail at the presidential mansion. How should the President demean himself in his contact with officers and the people? How should he appear in public? How often? What kind of entertainment should he give?

Who should be invited? What title should the President bear? With what formality should he be introduced? In these matters there was no precedent to guide. For who had ever held such a station before? The President must not on the one hand bear himself like a king surrounded with noblemen and courtiers, nor on the other must he degrade his high office by such blunt democratical manners as would render himself ridiculous and the presidency contemptible.

Such situations as they occasionally arise in the movements of human society are not a little embarrassing. Washington, had he followed his own disposition and the suggestions of his antecedents as a Virginia planter, would doubtless have inclined much to a severe and lofty formality. It would perhaps not have been much against his habits and manners that the presidency should have a "court;" but the American people as a whole were in no humor for any courtly proceedings. This was particularly true in New England. It could not be said that the President was out of sympathy and touch with the masses of his countrymen; but he was by nature a severe and sedate man, one of the most unapproachable indeed that modern history has produced.

Washington sought the advice of Adams, Jefferson, Hamilton and others in regard to a suitable etiquette and ceremonial for the republican court. Strangely enough, John Adams favored much ceremony; naturally enough, Jefferson favored none at all. The latter said: "I hope that the terms Excellency, Honor, Worship, Esquire, and even Mr., shall shortly and forever disappear from among us." Hamilton's reply favored a moderate and simple formality, and this view was adopted by Washington as both consistent with the spirit of the new government and accordant with his own tastes. In the meantime the question made its way into Congress, and that body declared that the chief magistrate should bear no title other than that of his office, namely, President of the United States. So with ceremonies few and simple the order of affairs and etiquette in the presidential office was established.

Of all the questions of the hour the greatest and gravest and most threatening was that of the national debt. The United States had gone into the war of the Revolution without resources or credit. Year after year the indebtedness of the struggling young republic had increased, and though the aggregate at the end of the war was small, as compared with the tremendous national debts that have accumulated during and since the Napoleonic wars, yet proportionally to the resources of the people the sum was sufficiently appalling. The total indebtedness of the United States at the close of the Revolutionary epoch, inclusive of the Revolutionary expenses of the several States, amounted to nearly eighty millions of dollars.

The problem of meeting this comparatively immense obligation was devolved on Hamilton. He as Secretary of the Treasury adopted a broad and honest policy, and his genius at length triumphed over every obstacle. His plan for meeting the debt by the processes of refunding, revenue and payment was matured and laid before Congress at the beginning of the second session. The scheme embraced the feature of the assumption of the several State war debts by the national government. The plan was based fundamentally upon the proposition that the debt should be fully and honestly paid. This policy once established tended strongly to create confidence on the part of capitalists, and it was not long until, by the measures of the Secretary, the country was fully established and actual payment of the debt begun.

As a means of augmenting the revenues of the government a duty was laid on the tonnage of merchant ships, with a discrimination in favor of American vessels. A system

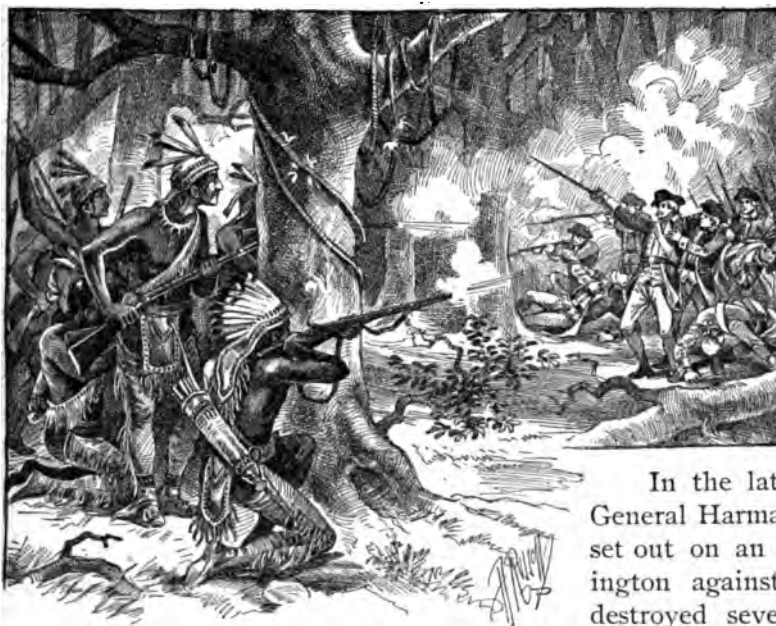
of customs-duties was devised on all imported articles, with a view not only to revenue, but to the temporary protection and encouragement of American industries. Hamilton's financial schemes were violently opposed; but his policy, which was supported by the Federal party and by the President, prevailed, and the credit of the American government was soon firmly established.

A WAR WITH THE INDIANS.

As said above, the financial scheme embraced the assumption of the debts of the several States by the national government, and this was coupled with the proposition to fix the place of the capital. In this matter there was strong competition, particularly between New York and Philadelphia. The latter was more centrally situated, but the claim of the former was strong and was generally supported by the representatives from New England. It was finally agreed to establish the seat of government for a period of ten years at Philadelphia and afterwards at some suitable locality on the river Potomac.

The next important measure was the organization of the territory southwest of the Ohio. The region including the country west of the Carolinas and lying between what was afterwards known as the Territory of the Mississippi and the western extension of Virginia was included in the act of 1790, but was soon afterwards modified into the State of Tennessee.

In the autumn of this same year a war broke out with the Miami Indians. Fort Washington, on the present site of Cincinnati, had been built, and the capital of the north-



GEN. HARMAR DEFEATED BY THE INDIANS.

west territory had been transferred to that place from Marietta. There General St. Clair established his headquarters as military governor. The Indians had relinquished their territorial rights in the surrounding country, but other tribes, refusing to recognize the treaty, came forward with claims to the ceded country and then went to war to recover their lost possessions.

In the latter part of September, 1790, General Harmar with fourteen hundred men set out on an expedition from Fort Washington against the hostile Miamis. He destroyed several villages and wasted the country as far as the Maumee, or North

Miami. Harmar adopted the tactics of dividing his army into detachments, and thus exposed himself to the wiles of the Indians. Colonel Hardin, who commanded the Kentucky volunteers, was ambuscaded and his forces routed at an Indian town eleven miles from Fort Wayne, and on the 21st of October the main division was defeated by the savages, with great loss, at Maumee Ford. General Harner was obliged to get out of the Indian country as best he could and make his way back to Fort Washington. The situation at the close of the year was threatening, ominous indeed, in all the country north-west of the Ohio.

Meanwhile the government continued to wrestle with questions of finance and revenue. In the early part of 1791 an act was passed by Congress establishing the Bank of the United States. The measure originated with Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, and was violently opposed by Jefferson and the Anti-Federal party. But federal opinion, which was essentially the assumption of large implied powers in the government of the United States, prevailed, and the bank was established without direct warrant of the Constitution. In the same year, namely 1791, Vermont, which had been for the last fourteen years an independent territory, adopted the Constitution, and on the 18th of February was admitted into the Union as the fourteenth State. The claim of New York to the jurisdiction of the province had been purchased in 1789 for thirty thousand dollars. At this time the first census of the United States, completed for the year 1790, was published, showing that the population of the country had increased to three million nine hundred and twenty-nine thousand souls.

DISASTROUS DEFEAT OF GENERAL ST. CLAIR.

The defeat of General Harnar gave great uneasiness to the government, and more vigorous measures were at once adopted for the repression of Indian hostilities. A new army was organized, two thousand strong, and placed at the disposal of Governor St. Clair. On the 6th of September, 1791, the expedition set out from Fort Washington and was directed against the

Miami confederacy. On the night of November 3d, St. Clair reached a point about a hundred miles north of Fort Washington, and encamped on one of the upper tributaries of the Wabash in what is now the southwest angle of Mercer county, Ohio. Early on the following morning his camp



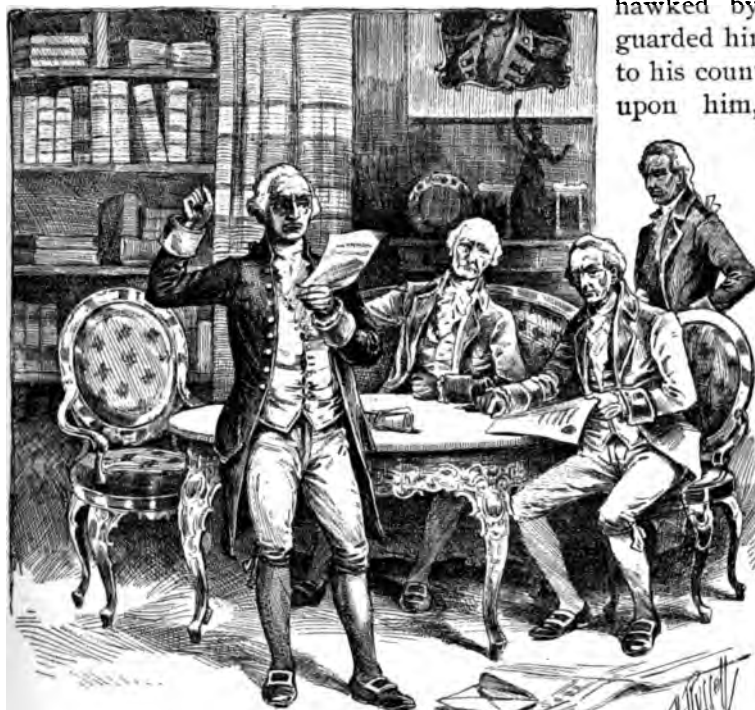
SURPRISE OF GENERAL ST. CLAIR.

was suddenly attacked by an army of Indians numbering more than two thousand, under command of the chief Little Turtle and several American renegades who had joined the savages. A terrible battle ensued, in which, after a conflict of three hours' duration, St. Clair was completely defeated. He lost fully one-half of his men and was fortunate to escape with the remainder. The fugitive militia retreated precipitately to Fort Washington, where they arrived four days after the battle.

If the defeat of Harnar had spread alarm, that of St. Clair brought terror. Everywhere

were gloom and sorrow. Hardly any battle of the Revolution had entailed greater loss of life and suffering. Even the national government at Philadelphia was for a while in consternation. The responsibility for the defeat was laid with some justice at the feet of General St. Clair, who had not conducted the campaign with the necessary vigilance and caution. For once the benignant spirit of Washington gave way to wrath. He was sitting at the table when the despatches announcing the ruinous defeat of the army were laid beside him. Presently he arose and retired to his office. "Here," said he in a tempest of indignation,—“here in this very room I took leave of General St. Clair. I wished him success and honor. I said to him, ‘You have careful instructions from the Secretary of War, and I myself will add one word—Beware of a *surprise!* You know how the Indians fight us. Beware of a *SURPRISE!*’ He went off with that my last warning ringing in his ears. And yet he has suffered that army to be cut to pieces, hacked, butchered, toma-

hawked by a surprise,—the very thing I guarded him against! How can he answer to his country? The blood of the slain is upon him,—the curse of widows and orphans!”



WASHINGTON RECEIVING THE REPORT OF ST. CLAIR'S DEFEAT.

Mr. Lear, the secretary, in whose presence this storm of wrath burst forth, sat speechless. Presently Washington grew silent. "What I have uttered must not go beyond this room," said he in a manner of great seriousness. Another pause of several minutes ensued, and then he continued in a slow and solemn tone, "I looked at the despatches hastily, and did not note all the particulars. General St. Clair shall have justice. I will receive him without displeasure,—he shall *have full justice!*"

Notwithstanding his exculpa-

tion by a committee of Congress, poor St. Clair, overwhelmed with censures and reproaches, resigned his command, and was succeeded by General Wayne, whom the people had named Mad Anthony.

It was not long until Kentucky followed Vermont into the Union. The population of the former territory had now reached seventy-three thousand. Only seventeen years before Daniel Boone, the hardy hunter of North Carolina, had made his way across the mountains and settled with his companions at Boonesborough. Harrodsburgh and Lexington were founded about the same time. During the Revolutionary period the pioneers were constantly beset by the savages. Kentucky gained the name of the Dark and Bloody Ground. It was not until after the expedition of George Rogers Clarke in 1779 that the frontier became comparatively secure. In the years following the treaty of 1783 thousands of immi-

grants arrived annually. Meanwhile Virginia relinquished her claim to the territory, and on the 1st of June, 1792, Kentucky was admitted into the Union.

Thus the first quadrennium of the American government drew to a close. The Constitution was silent in regard to the eligibility of a President for reelection. The people, however, in their sovereign capacity decided in favor of continuing the administration of Washington. Accordingly in the autumn of 1792 the Father of his Country, now in the sixty-first year of his age, was again unanimously chosen to the Presidency; as Vice-President John Adams was also reelected.

TROUBLES OF THE SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

History had reserved, however, for the second administration of Washington many vexatious complications and serious troubles, particularly in the foreign relations of the government. Western Europe was now in an uproar. The French Revolution had broken out coincidently with the institution of the new American government, and was running its dreadful course. The French democracy, liberated by its own exertion from the thralldom of centuries, had arisen against the existing order, and after three years of unparalleled excesses, had tried, convicted and beheaded the King. The Jacobins were rampant. The French monarchy was abolished. Citizen Genet was sent by the new French republic as minister to the United States. On his arrival at Charleston, and on his way to Philadelphia he was greeted with the greatest enthusiasm. The anti-Federal or Republican party had watched the course of the French Revolution with sympathy and delight, seeing, as they believed, in the same the European counterpart of the American war for independence. Citizen Genet, making the most of his popularity, soon began to abuse his authority by fitting out privateers to prey on the commerce of Great Britain. He planned an expedition against Louisiana, and although the President had proclaimed neutrality, began to demand an alliance of the American government with France.

The situation was peculiar, critical. It was not long since France, in a manner as irregular as it was generous, had come to the aid of the American Revolutionists. The French alliance had been the mainstay of the patriots in the darkest days of their struggle for independence. War between France and Great Britain had resulted from this open sympathy and support of the American cause. All this must needs have produced in the minds of the democratic fathers an immense prejudice in favor of France and against Great Britain. The situation in 1793 was such that the United States must almost out of the nature of the case join hands with France, whatever might be her course and policy.

It was therefore in great measure against the sentiment of the people that Washington and his cabinet firmly refused the demands of Citizen Genet, held faithfully to the existing treaty with Great Britain, and declined the proposed warlike alliance with the French. At this the audacious ambassador threatened to appeal to the people of the United States against the government. In this conduct, so much in violation of the principles of international intercourse, Genet was sustained and encouraged by the anti-Federal party. For a while the government was menaced and endangered. But Washington stood unmoved in the midst of the clamor, declared the conduct of the French minister insulting to the sovereignty of the United States, and demanded his recall as a person not acceptable to the American government. The Republican authorities of France heeded the demand, and Citizen Genet was superseded by Citizen Fouchet, who showed himself to be a man of greater equanimity and steadier temperament than his predecessor.

POLITICAL DISSENSIONS IN THE CABINET.

Unfortunately, the spirit of partisanship had now measurably prevailed over the plan and purpose of Washington. It had been the intention and policy of the President to know no party in his administration. But the party had come, and the government became greatly embarrassed by political dissensions in the cabinet. From the beginning, indeed, the Secretaries of State and the Treasury had maintained towards each other an attitude of implacable political hostility. The divergence between Hamilton and Jefferson was one of thought and constitution. They differed fundamentally in their concepts of society and government. The intense democracy of the one was set against the intense Federalism of the other. Hamilton believed in a vast and orderly organization of society on the general plan of the British government. It does not appear that he believed in monarchy as a theory, or that he favored its reinstitution in America—though he was vehemently charged with this purpose by his political opponents. Hamilton sought rather to give to the American republic solidity, regularity, permanence, firmness of prerogative, and in particular whatsoever implied powers were requisite for its own maintenance against either domestic insurrection or foreign violence. Jefferson on the other hand was broadly and radically democratic. He believed that, on the whole, governmental systems had been the bane of liberty and the curse of the human race. He would fain have little government and great local freedom. He would run all risks of anarchy and disintegration rather than incur the danger of a centralized despotism.

The reader may well perceive the difficulty which a President would experience in attempting to get on smoothly with two men of so great ability and such antagonistic principles occupying the two principal seats in his cabinet. Doubtless the trouble was intensified by the natural disposition of both secretaries to gain an ascendancy over the mind of the President. It was in this posture of affairs that Hamilton and Jefferson became the heads of rival parties in the government. The financial measures of the former were attacked with vehement animosity by the latter, and the policy of Jefferson in his relations and duties as Secretary of Foreign Affairs was the subject of much bitter criticism from Hamilton's scathing pen.

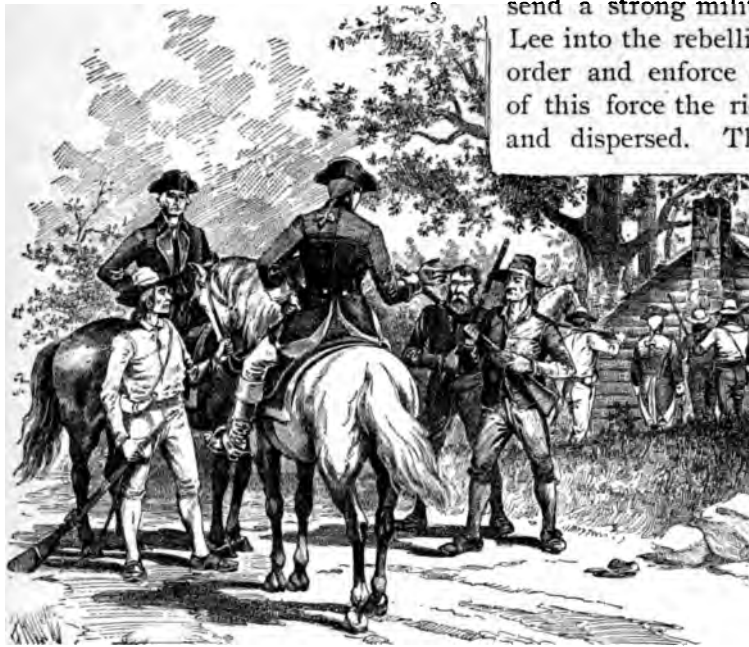
The breach between the rivals grew wider and wider. Washington's influence was hardly sufficient to prevent an open break in his cabinet. So great were the abilities and so valuable the experience of the two secretaries, and so pronounced was the patriotism of each that the services of neither could be spared without serious detriment to the administration. Both officers were in high esteem by their fellow-citizens, and justly so; for no other men of the eighteenth century had reached a higher level of statesmanlike abilities and devotion. Both had insisted on the reelection of Washington to the Presidency. Gradually the spirit of party prevailed in the administration, and Washington himself became recognized more and more as a Federalist. Jefferson, without ceasing to sympathize with the President in his responsibilities and in most of his public measures, nevertheless drew off, and in January of 1794 resigned his office and retired to private life at Monticello. A year afterwards Hamilton also retired from the cabinet, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut.

THE WHISKEY INSURRECTION.

The year 1794 was marked by a serious domestic disturbance in western Pennsylvania known as the whiskey insurrection. The trouble seems to have originated, in part at least in the democratic agitations which had attended the coming of Citizen Genet from France. The government, in the hope of improving its revenues, had in 1791 imposed a tax on all

ardent spirits distilled in the United States. While Genet was at Philadelphia he and his partisans had used the whiskey tax as an argument for inciting the people, especially those of the distilling regions, to hostility against the existing legislation and resistance of the collectors of revenue.

At length an open insurrection broke out. Washington issued two proclamations warning the insurgents to disperse and obey the laws; but instead of doing so, they fired upon and captured the officers of the government. The President found it necessary to



CAPTURE OF THE WHISKEY-TAX COLLECTORS.

send a strong military force under General Henry Lee into the rebellious districts in order to restore order and enforce the law. With the approach of this force the rioters took counsel of discretion and dispersed. The sequel showed that the in-

surrection had been a political rather than a social or civil outbreak; for the anti-Federalists were in the majority in the distilling region and the whiskey income-tax was a measure of the Federal party.

After the defeat of General St. Clair and the destruction of his army the government must needs take measures for the protection of the north-west territory and the suppression of the hostile Indian tribes. The latter were combined in what was known as

the Miami confederacy. General Wayne, on taking command in the west, organized as soon as practicable a force of three thousand men. In the fall of 1793 he began a campaign into the Indian country and soon reached the scene of St. Clair's defeat. There he built a stockade named Fort Recovery, and then pressed on to the junction of the Au Glaize and the Maumee in the present county of Williams, Ohio. At this place Fort Defiance was built and garrisoned. Wayne then descended the Maumee to the rapids, from which place he sent proposals of peace to the Indians who were in council only a few miles away.

WAYNE'S VICTORY OVER THE INDIANS.

Among the ablest chieftains of the native races of the Ohio Valley was that Little Turtle whose name and deeds enter so largely into the frontier history of the epoch. Like Tecumtha, he was able to understand when to fight and when to refrain from fighting. At the great council on the Maumee he advised that a treaty of peace be made with the whites on the best terms that might be obtained; but the rash majority were for battle, and the council so decided. On the 20th of August Wayne marched against the savages, and came upon them where the present town of Waynesfield stands. Here he attacked the Red men without delay, and routed them with terrible losses. He then compelled the humbled chieftains to purchase peace by ceding to the United States all the territory east of a line drawn from Fort Recovery to the mouth of the Great Miami. The campaign

was crowned with complete success; but it was the last of the public services of Anthony Wayne. Remaining for a while in the Indian country, he embarked on Lake Erie to return to Philadelphia; but in December of 1796 he died on board the vessel, and was buried at Presque Isle, Pennsylvania.

As the eighteenth century drew to a close, Western Europe seemed given over to the ferocity and horror of universal war. It was fortunate for the United States that the broad atlantic rolled and swelled between. Otherwise it would perhaps have been impossible that our new republic should not be embroiled in the common struggle. The prudence and probity of Washington held back hard against the tendency which would have drawn his country into the vortex. It was the fact of maritime commercial relations which seemed most likely to involve the young nation in the common fate of war.

Very little was Great Britain disposed to regard the interests, rights and wishes of the United States while she prosecuted her warlike enterprises against the French. As early as November of 1793 the British King issued secret instructions to privateers to seize all neutral vessels that might be found trading in the West Indies. The United States had no notification of the purpose of England in this respect, and the high-handed outrage fell upon American trading-vessels without warning. The commerce of the United States to the value of many millions of dollars was swept from the sea by a process differing only in name from highway robbery. But for the temperate spirit of the government the country must have been plunged at once into war.

Prudence, however, prevailed over passion, and instead of a declaration of hostilities Chief Justice Jay was sent, in the spring of 1794, as envoy extraordinary to demand redress and justice at the hands of the British government. Contrary to expectation, his mission was successful, and in the following November an honorable treaty was added to that of 1783. The terms of settlement, however, were exceedingly distasteful to the anti-Federal partisans of France in America, and they determined to prevent its ratification. The excitement in the country rose to a high pitch of bitterness and passion. Every argument and motive which ingenuity and prejudice could supply was eagerly made and repeated before the people. Discontent was the order of the day. Public meetings were held, and orators harangued the multitudes. In New York a copy of the treaty was burned before the governor's mansion. In Philadelphia there were similar proceedings.

Washington, standing serenely at the helm of State, was assailed with incendiary invectives and slanders. Never in his whole career had he been subjected to a like storm of malice, indignity and shameless animadversions. In one instance his house was approached by a mob who hooted, threw stones and clubs in the manner of madmen at the official residence. But the President, believing the late treaty to be just in its main provisions and earnestly hoping to avoid a war, stood his ground, and the treaty was ratified. In June of 1795 the new compact was accepted by the Senate and signed by the President. It was specified in the treaty that Great Britain should make ample reparation for the injuries done by her privateers, and surrender to the United States certain western posts which until now had been held by English garrisons.

TROUBLE WITH THE ALGERINE PIRATES.

It was an important matter at this epoch to settle the international boundary between the United States and Spain on the side of Louisiana. This work was accomplished by a treaty in October, 1795. The Spanish king gave a guarantee to the Americans of the free navigation of the Mississippi, just as England had done in the treaty of independence.

Less honorable by far was the compact made at this time with the kingdom of Algiers. For a long time Algerine pirates had infested the Mediterranean. Probably since the times of Pompey the Great that inland ocean had never been free from the depredations of the African freebooters of the deep. They preyed upon the commerce of all civilized nations alike, and those nations had chosen to purchase exemption from such ravages by the ruinous policy of paying to the Dey of Algiers an annual tribute.

In consideration of the tribute the Dey agreed (with astonishing magnanimity!) that his pirate ships should confine themselves to the Mediterranean and should not attack the vessels of such nations as made the payment. At this time, however, and with the purpose of injuring her rival, France, Great Britain winked at an agreement with the Dey, by which the Algerine sea-robbers were turned loose on the Atlantic. Once afloat in those broad waters, the pirate-ships made little discrimination among the victims of their piracy; and American commerce suffered greatly with the rest. The government of the United States in this juncture of affairs deemed it prudent to purchase safety and exemption by the payment of the shameful tribute.

In the summer of 1796, Tennessee was admitted into the Union as the third new State. Six years previously North Carolina had surrendered her claims to her territory west of the mountains in the same manner as Virginia had done in the case of Kentucky. At that time, namely in 1790, Tennessee contained a population of thirty-five thousand; but within the following five years the number was more than doubled. The first inhabitants of Tennessee, as will be recalled by the reader, were fugitives from the wrath of the royal governor of Carolina, against whom they had revolted in the early days of independence. They were of that hardy race of pioneers to whom the perils of the wilderness are as nothing provided the wilderness is free. By the addition of the two States southwest of the Ohio, more than eighty-three thousand square miles of territory were brought under the dominion of civilization.

The democratic hostility to Washington passed away with the passion in which it was engendered. Few things in history, indeed, are more surprising than the ascendancy which he to the end of his official career continued to exercise over the minds of his countrymen. His integrity had in these late years of his life, as well as in the times of the Revolution and back to the days of his youth, been tested by every ordeal to which human character may be subjected. True, in the House of Representatives during the last two sessions of his administration, there had been a clear anti-Federal majority against him and his policy; and yet the House continued the support of his measures. Even the provisions necessary to carry into effect the hated treaty with Great Britain were made by that body, though the vote was close. So powerful were the President's views and wishes in determining the actions of the people that Jefferson, writing to James Monroe at Paris, said: "Congress have risen. You will see by their proceedings the truth of what I always told you, namely that one man outweighs them all in influence over the people, who support his judgment against their own and that of their representatives. Republicanism resigns its vessel to the pilot."

WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

In the beginning of a government like that of the United States many things must be left to establish themselves by custom, trial and precedent. This was particularly true in the case of our own country, for the Constitution was comparatively brief, and the nature of the government was such as to forbid explicit details on many important points. One question of wide and far-reaching interest was the eligibility of the incumbent President to reelection. At the close of Washington's first term this was decided in the affirmative by

a kind of common consent. The question of a *second* reelection remained, however, to be considered in the year 1796. The second administration drew to a close. Should Washington be chosen for a third term or should some other be taken in his place? Popular opinion was in favor of the continuance of the President in office. He was strongly solicited to permit the use of his name in candidature for a third election, but he would not. His resolution had been taken to end his public career with the close of his second term. With him the evening of life drew on and rest was necessary.

Accordingly in September of 1796 Washington issued to the people of the United States his farewell address—a document crowded with precepts of political wisdom, prudent counsels and chastened patriotism. Perhaps no other communication has ever been sent to a free people in which so much wisdom, devotion and unselfish counsel was given as in this the last address of the Father of his Country.

As soon as Washington's determination to retire from the Presidency was known the political parties marshalled their forces and put forward their champions. John Adams appeared as the candidate of the Federal and Thomas Jefferson of the anti-Federal party. Antagonism to the Constitution, which had thus far been the chief question dividing the American politicians and statesmen, now gave place to another issue—whether it was the true policy of the United States to enter into intimate relations with the republic of France. The anti-Federalists or Republicans said *Yes*; that all republics have a common end, and that Great Britain was the common enemy of them all. The Federalists said *No*; that the American republic must mark out an independent course among the nations and avoid all foreign alliances. On that issue John Adams was elected to the Presidency; but Mr. Jefferson having the next highest number of votes became Vice-President. For according to the old provision of the Constitution the person who stood second on the list of those voted for for the Presidency was declared the second officer in the government.

JOHN ADAMS, THE SECOND PRESIDENT.

It was thus decided that the Federal administration upheld and promoted by Washington during the first eight years of our national existence should be continued under his successor. John Adams was a native of the town of Braintree, Massachusetts, where he was born on the 19th of October, 1735. He was the great-grandson of that Henry Adams who, emigrating from Great Britain in 1640, founded in America a family which was destined to be made famous by many illustrious names. Eight sons of the elder Adams settled around Massachusetts Bay. One of these, the grandfather of the President, made his home in that part of Braintree afterwards called Quincy. The father of John Adams was a Puritan deacon, a selectman of the town, a farmer of small means and a shoemaker. The son received a classical education, being graduated at the age of twenty from Harvard College. For a while he taught school; but finding that vocation to be, as he expressed it, *a school of affliction*, he turned his attention to the study of law. In this his chosen profession he soon became eminent, removed to Boston, engaged with great zeal in the controversy with the mother country and became in a short time a recognized leader of public opinion.

From this time forth the services of Adams were in constant demand both in his native State and in the successive Colonial Congresses. He was a member of the celebrated committee appointed to draw the Declaration of Independence; and in the debates on that instrument was its chief defender. He was an able jurist, well versed in the principles of international law, and during the last years of the Revolution served his country as ambassador to France, Holland and Great Britain. He was the first minister of the United

States to the mother country after the recognition of American independence. From this important station he returned in 1788 to be elected to the Vice-Presidency under the new Constitution. In this high office he served by the side of Washington for eight years and was then chosen as his successor to the Presidency.

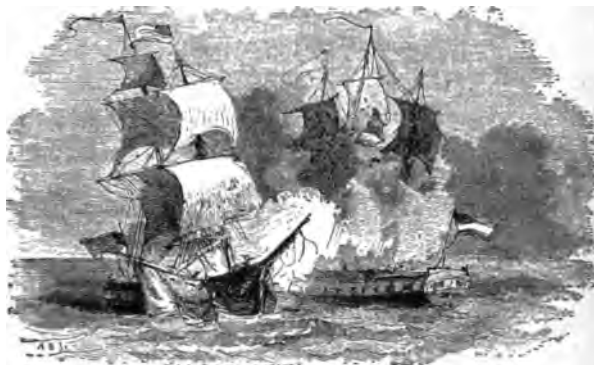
The beginning of the administration of Adams was a time of trouble and alarm both national and international. The anti-Federal party in the United States, now beginning to take the name of Democratic, constituted both in and out of Congress a powerful and well-organized opposition to the government. The minister of the French republic was at this time M. Adet, who had succeeded Fouchet. His business in the United States appeared to be principally the securing of a league, defensive and offensive, against Great Britain. The President and Congress stood firmly on the doctrine of neutrality which had been advanced by Washington as the true policy of the United States.

Adet, failing with the government, began to make inflammatory appeals to the people, among whom he found a great and audacious following. The French Directory meanwhile grew insolent, and began to *demand* an alliance. The treaty which John Jay had concluded with England was especially complained of by the partisans of France. On the 10th of March, only six days after the inauguration of Adams, the Directory issued instructions to French men-of-war to assail the commerce of the United States. Soon afterwards Mr. Pinckney, the American minister at Paris, was ordered to leave the territory of France.

WAR WITH FRANCE.

Such proceedings were the equivalent of a declaration of war. The President immediately convened Congress in extraordinary session and preliminary measures were taken to repel the aggressions of the French. Elbridge Gerry and John Marshall were directed to join Mr. Pinckney in a final effort for a peaceable adjustment of the pending difficulty, but the effort was fruitless. The Directory of France would not receive the American ambassadors except upon condition that they would pledge the payment into the French treasury of a quarter of a million dollars. Then it was that Pinckney made answer with the aphoristic declaration that the United States had *millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute!* The envoys were then ordered to leave the country, but Gerry, who was an anti-Federalist, was at length permitted to remain. These events occupied the summer and fall of 1797.

War with France was now anticipated as a certainty. Congress began to make provision for the emergency, and, in the early part of 1798, passed an act completing the organization of the army. Washington was called from the retirement of his old age and appointed commander-in-chief. He accepted the position on the two conditions that he should not be obliged to take the field except in case of actual invasion, and that he should have the right to name his own subordinates. Alexander Hamilton was chosen first major-general. A navy of six frigates, besides many privateers, had been provided for during the previous year and a national loan had been authorized. The patriotism of the people was at length thoroughly aroused. Even the strong sympathy of the anti-Federalist party for the cause of Republican France was not sufficient to prevail against the sentiments of the people stung by the affronts and injustice of the French Directory.



ENGAGEMENT OF THE CONSTELLATION AND THE INSURGENT.

The existing treaties with France were promptly annulled and vigorous preparations made for the impending war. The American frigates put to sea, and in the summer and fall of 1799 did good service for the commerce of the country. Commodore Truxton in the ship *Constellation* won distinguished honors for his flag and inflicted great injury upon the enemy. On the 9th of February, while cruising in the West Indies he attacked the *Insurgent*, a French man-of-war carrying forty guns and more than four hundred seamen. A desperate engagement ensued, and Truxton though inferior in guns and men gained a complete victory. A year later he fell in with another frigate called the *Vengeance*, and after five hours' battle in the night would have captured his antagonist but for a storm and the darkness. The cruise by its success added greatly to the reputation of the American flag on the high seas.

Meanwhile the organization of the provisional army went forward and was soon completed. The commander-in-chief established his headquarters at Philadelphia, where he remained for five weeks in consultation with Generals Hamilton and Pinckney. Such measures were devised as were deemed adequate to the defence of the honor of the nation. Washington then retired to Mount Vernon, leaving the greater part of the responsibility to be borne by Hamilton.

The news of these warlike proceedings was soon borne to France. The relation between the two republics was as unnatural as it was strained. The question might well be asked why these two friendly peoples, lately fighting shoulder to shoulder in the trenches before Yorktown, should now take up arms in a fratricidal war. The shrewd Talleyrand, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, seeing that his dismissal of Mr. Monroe and General Pinckney had given mortal offence to the American people, signified to Vans Murray, ambassador of the United States to Holland, that if President Adams should send *another* minister to Paris he would be cordially received. This hint was transmitted by Murray to the American President, who eagerly seized the opportunity to extricate the country from apprehended war. On the 18th of February, 1799, he sent a message to the Senate nominating Mr. Murray as Minister Plenipotentiary to the French Republic. The nomination was confirmed and the ambassador was ordered to proceed at once to France. With him were joined, by the action of the American Senate, two other envoys, Oliver Ellsworth and William R. Davie. These two hastened to Amsterdam to join Murray on his important mission to the French capital.

NAPOLÉON'S FRIENDLY ATTITUDE TOWARDS AMERICA.

By this time, however, the French Directory had itself gone into oblivion. The youthful Napoleon Bonaparte, rising suddenly as a military hero on the dazzled vision of the French republic, had displaced the governing Directory and made himself First Consul. More wise than his predecessors and associates, he immediately sought peace with the United States. He saw clearly enough that the impending war would, if prosecuted, result in an alliance between America and England—a thing most unfavorable to the interests of France. Thereby the strong friendship already becoming traditional between France and America would be annulled, the political and social dislike of the Americans for the mother country obliterated, and the whole replaced with what might well seem to him an unnatural league of the lately rebellious States of the New World with the monarchy which had tried to oppress and destroy them.

Bonaparte was confident that peaceful overtures on his part would be met with favor. When the three American ambassadors—Murray, Ellsworth and Davie—reached Paris in the beginning of March, 1800, they were well received by the First Consul, and negotia-

tions were at once opened for peace. In the following September all difficulties were happily terminated with the new treaty, entirely satisfactory in its provisions to the people of the United States. In all his relations with our country—whatever may have been his underlying motives of action—Napoleon acted the part of a consistent and honorable ruler.

LAST DAYS AND DEATH OF WASHINGTON.

Before the war-cloud was scattered by the new treaty with the French republic, America was called to mourn the loss of Washington. On the 14th of December, 1799, after an illness of only a day, the venerated chieftain passed from among the living. It appears that though Washington was by nature of an unusually vigorous constitution, his vital forces failed, or began to fail, at a comparatively early period of his life. The hardships and anxieties of the Revolution told heavily upon him. It is probable that at heart the Father of his Country was capable of feeling the greatest distress on account of the sufferings and sorrows of his countrymen. At all events, on his retirement from the Presidency, just after the completion of his sixty-fifth year, he was already an aged man; but he returned to Mount Vernon in happy spirits, and began by personal supervision the restoration and improvement of his estates. It was his custom and joy to ride abroad each morning in the personal superintendence of the various enterprises whereby he hoped soon to make Mount Vernon the ideal and resting place of his declining days.

Two days before his death, though the weather was bleak and threatening, Washington rode forth to a distant part of the estate, and did not return until after dark. Meanwhile a cold rain had come, and the General was wet and chilled in the December evening. An attack of tonsillitis, to which disease he had been subject at intervals for many years, supervened, and on the following day he was seriously sick. The physician was called in, and, acting after the folly of the times, bled his illustrious patient almost to exhaustion. During the next day he sank away, and in the evening fell into that peaceful slumber from which neither the affectionate voice of his countrymen nor the blare of the trumpet of war might ever wake him more.

The event touched all hearts with inexpressible sorrow. The people instinctively put on the garb of mourning. Congress on receiving the intelligence went in funeral procession to the German Lutheran Church, where General Henry Lee, the personal friend of Washington, delivered that touching and eloquent oration in which the expression, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens," was recorded. Throughout the civilized world the memory of the Father of his Country was honored with appropriate ceremonies. To the legions of France the event was announced by Bonaparte, who paid a beautiful tribute to the virtues of "the warrior, the legislator, and the citizen without reproach." As the body of Washington was laid in the sepulchre, the voice of partisan malignity that had not hesitated to assail his name was hushed into everlasting silence, and the world with uncovered head agreed with Lord Byron in declaring the illustrious dead to have been among warriors, statesmen and patriots—

"The first, the last, the best—
The Cincinnatus of the West."

PEACE, PROSPERITY AND PERMANENCE.

Great was the relief to the public mind when the threatening cloud of war with France passed by. It could not be said that with the masses of the people the prospect of such a war was ever entertained with favor. The recollection of the recent great good of the French alliance was too recent to pass readily from the brain and heart of the people.

There was, therefore, a sense of relief when the clouds parted and the light of returning good-will streamed through. Meanwhile the administration of the elder Adams and the eighteenth century drew to a close together. In spite of domestic dissensions and foreign alarms, the new republic had greatly grown in strength and influence. The second census, that of 1800, showed that the population of the country, including the blacks, had increased to over five millions. The seventy-five post offices reported by the census of 1790 had been multiplied to nine hundred and three. The exports of the United States had increased from twenty millions to nearly seventy-one millions of dollars. Better than all, the permanency of the new political order under the Constitution as the supreme law of the land had become an established fact and was cheerfully recognized by the people.

In December of 1800 Congress for the first time assembled in Washington City, the new capital of the nation. Virginia and Maryland had ceded to the United States the District of Columbia, a tract ten miles square, lying on both sides of the Potomac. But the part given by Virginia was afterward re-ceded to that State. The city which was designed as the seat of government was laid out in 1792, and in 1800 the population had reached an aggregate of about eight thousand five hundred.

The political question now arose as to which party and policy should obtain preponderance in the government. It would appear that with prudent management and unanimity the Federalists might have remained in the ascendant; but that policy had now incurred much popular reprobation. There were dissensions in Adams's cabinet. Much of the recent legislation of Congress had been unwise and perhaps partisan. The Alien law, by which the President was authorized to send out of the country any foreigners whose presence might be reckoned prejudicial to the interests of the United States, was especially odious. The Sedition law, which punished with fine and imprisonment the freedom of speech and of the press when directed abusively against the government, was denounced by the opposition as an act of tyranny. Partisan excitement ran high. It was clear that the destinies of the American government were to fall exclusively into the hands of the one party or the other.

John Adams and Charles C. Pinckney were put forward as the candidates of the Federalists, and Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr of the Republicans, or Democrats. The latter were triumphant. In the electoral college Jefferson and Burr each received seventy-three votes; Adams sixty-five, and Pinckney sixty-four. In order to decide between the Democratic candidates, the election was referred to the House of Representatives. After thirty-five ballotings the choice of that body fell on Jefferson, and Burr, who was now second on the list was declared Vice-President. After controlling the government for the first twelve years of its existence the Federal party, thus defeated, passed from power never to be restored.

CHARACTER OF JEFFERSON.

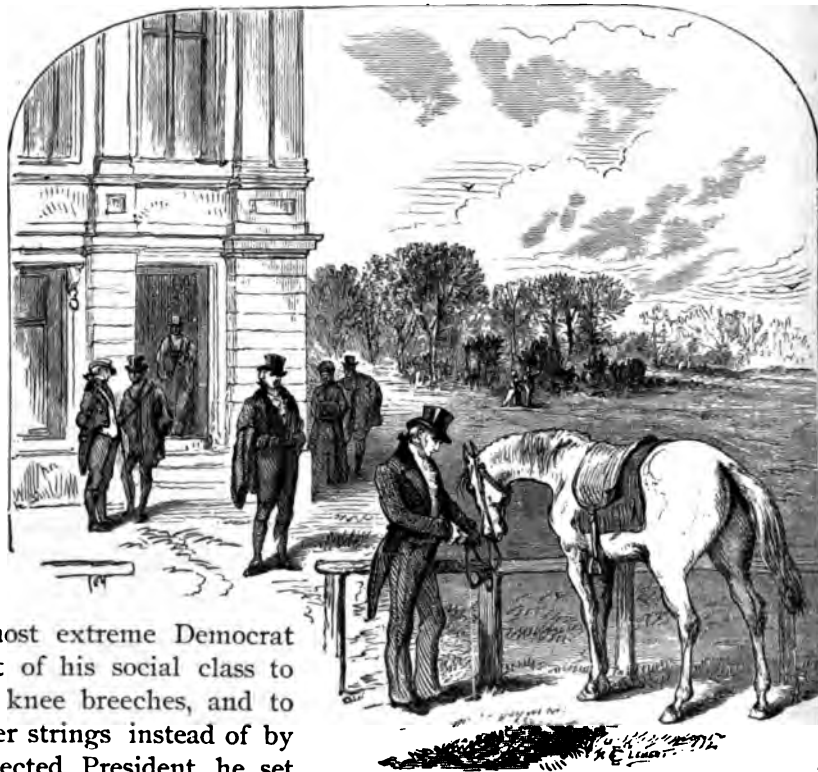
The reader may readily discover the natural evolution which was beginning in the political history of the government. The elder Adams had served as Vice-President to Washington. Jefferson had served in a like relation with Adams. Both had been long disciplined in public life. Both had represented the government abroad in its most critical international relations. There was clearly a disposition on the part of the people to choose the greatest and strongest men for the highest official trusts.

There was also a gravitation towards a broader democracy. This was expressed in the election of Jefferson over Adams. The new chief magistrate was one of the most intellectual men of the century—one of the greatest patriots; but he was by no means a mili-

tary leader. Jefferson was born in the county of Albemarle, Virginia, on the 2d of April, 1743. Of his ancestry history has preserved no record other than the name of his father, Colonel Peter Jefferson, who in the pre-revolutionary period rose to note by his native abilities and force of character. The son had excellent advantages of early training, both at home and in a private school established by an exiled Scottish clergyman. Afterwards he completed his education at William and Mary College. He then entered upon the study of law, and soon rose to distinction. He became in early manhood deeply absorbed in the rising controversy with the mother country, and by his radical views in the House of Burgesses contributed much to fix the sentiments of that body against the arbitrary measures of the English ministry.

The provincial council of Virginia, however, could not limit the activities and fame of Jefferson, and he was sent to the Continental Congress. His coming was anxiously awaited in that body in 1776; for his fame as a thinker and Democrat had preceded him. To his pen and brain the authorship of the Declaration of Independence must be awarded. During the struggles of the Revolution he was among the most distinguished, active and uncompromising of the patriot leaders. After the war was over he was sent abroad with Adams and Franklin to negotiate treaties of amity and commerce with the nations of Europe. He was then appointed minister plenipotentiary of the new republic to France. From this high trust he was recalled to become Secretary of State under Washington. In 1796 he was elected Vice-President, and in 1800 President of the United States.

Though of aristocratic birth, Jefferson was the most extreme Democrat of his time. He was first of his social class to substitute pantaloons for knee breeches, and to fasten his shoes by leather strings instead of by silver buckles. When elected President he set aside the custom of his predecessors, who rode to the place of their inauguration in a magnificent court-like carriage drawn by four horses, and accompanied by liveried servants, but proceeded thither on horseback and unattended. Arriving at the place, he hitched his horse to a rack, and going into the Capitol delivered an address that occupied less than fifteen minutes. So opposed was he to ostentation and the homage paid to greatness, that he abolished Presidential levees, and kept the date of his birth secret in order that it might not be celebrated. The American decimal system of coinage, the statute of religious freedom in Virginia, the Declaration of



JEFFERSON GOING TO HIS INAUGURATION.

Independence, the University of Virginia, and the Presidency of the Union are the immutable foundations of his fame.

The tendency towards a party and partisan administration of the government has already been noted as one of the early features in the political history of our republic. At the beginning of his administration Jefferson transferred the chief offices of the government to members of the Democratic party. This policy had in some measure been adopted by his predecessor; but the principle was now made universal. Such action was justified by the President and his adherents on the ground that the affairs of a republic will be best administered when the officers hold the same political opinions. Congress had passed with the elections of 1800 into the hands of a Democratic majority, and one of the first acts of that body was to abolish the system of internal revenue. The Alien law and the Sedition law which had been directed against foreigners and the freedom of the press were also repealed. But the territorial legislation of Jefferson's first term was the most important of all the measures of his administration.

The work of dividing and organizing the great region known as the territory northwest of the River Ohio was undertaken in the year 1800. In the first place a line was drawn through that territory from the mouth of the Great Miami river to Fort Recovery, and thence to Canada.* Two years afterward the country east of this line was erected into the State of Ohio and admitted into the Union. The portion west of the line, embracing the present States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota, was organized under the name of the Indiana territory. Vincennes, on the Wabash river, was made the capital, and General William Henry Harrison received the appointment of territorial governor. About the same time the Mississippi territory, extending from the western limits of Georgia to the great river, was organized. Thus another grand and fertile district of a hundred thousand square miles was reclaimed, at least potentially, from primitive barbarism.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

More important still was the purchase of Louisiana. The reader will recall the romantic and adventurous incidents by which the vast region lying west of the Mississippi had fallen first to France and afterwards to Spain. In the year 1800, very soon after his accession to power, Napoleon Bonaparte compelled Spain to make a secret cession of this vast territory to France. The First Consul then prepared to send an army to New Orleans for the purpose of establishing his authority. All this was done with no ill-will to the United States, but with the ulterior design of overbalancing the interests of Great Britain and North America.

The government of the United States, however, remonstrated against such a proceeding. France at this time was threatened with multiplied wars in Europe, and Bonaparte, perceiving the difficulty of maintaining a colonial empire at so great a distance, authorized his minister to dispose of Louisiana by sale. President Jefferson appointed Mr. Livingston and James Monroe to negotiate the purchase. The circumstances were such as greatly to embarrass the President, for his views of the limited powers of the American government under the Constitution were of a kind to forbid the executive purchase of new territory. But the great opportunity brooked no delay, and on the 30th of April, 1803, the terms of

* When the territorial division was first effected, the dividing line setting off Ohio was run from the mouth of the *Kentucky river* to Fort Recovery, but afterwards, when the territorial boundary of Ohio was determined, the mouth of the Great Miami instead of the mouth of the Kentucky was taken as the point of origin—a change which considerably affected the territorial limits of the two States lying east and west of the line.

transfer were agreed on by the agents of the two nations. The sum of eleven million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars was fixed as the price of the cession, and Louisiana was transferred to the United States.* In another agreement, which was signed on the same day, it was stipulated that the United States should assume the payment of certain debts due from France to American citizens; but the sum thus assumed should not, inclusive of interest, exceed three million seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Thus did the vast domain west of the Mississippi, embracing an area of more than a million square miles, pass under the dominion of the United States.

In this great territorial transaction four nations—France, the United States, Great Britain and Spain—were concerned. The question of boundaries of the ceded territory was of far-reaching importance. As to the eastern limit, all four of the contracting parties—or rather the parties concerned—agreed that it should be the Mississippi River from its source to the thirty-first parallel of latitude. On the southeast the boundary contended for by the United States, Great Britain and France was the thirty-first parallel from the Mississippi to the Appalachicola, and down that river to the gulf. From this line, however, Spain dissented, claiming the Iberville and Lake Maurepas and Pontchartrain; but she was obliged to yield to the decision of her rivals. On the south, by the consent of all, the boundary was the Gulf of Mexico as far as the mouth of the river Sabine. The southwestern limit was established along the last named stream as far as the thirty-first parallel; thence due north to the Red River; up that stream to the one-hundredth meridian from Greenwich; thence north again to the Arkansas; thence with that river to the mountains, and thence north with the mountain-chain to the forty-second parallel of latitude.

Thus far all four of the nations were agreed; but the United States, Great Britain and France—again coinciding—claimed the extension of the boundary along the forty-second parallel to the Pacific Ocean; and to this extension Spain for several years refused her assent; but in the treaty of 1819, by which Florida was ceded to the United States, the objections of Spain were formally withdrawn. The claim, therefore, of the United States, to the extension of Louisiana to the Pacific, though disallowed by Spain for sixteen years, was finally conceded by her, and a true map of the cession so represents the purchase. In fixing the northern boundary, only the United States and Great Britain were concerned, and the forty-ninth parallel from the Lake of the Woods to the Pacific was established as the international line.

OTHER IMPORTANT RESULTS OF THE JEFFERSON ADMINISTRATION.

This great territorial acquisition was the most important event of the Jeffersonian administration. Of the southern portion of the new acquisition the Territory of Orleans was soon organized with the same limits as the present State of Louisiana. The remainder of the vast cession continued to be called the Territory of Louisiana, or the Louisiana Purchase. By the cession the free navigation of the Mississippi was no longer matter of dispute, since that river lay henceforth within the territories of the United States. Very justly did Mr. Livingston remark to the French minister, as they arose from signing the treaty: "We have lived long, but this is the noblest work of our whole lives."

In another respect Jefferson's administration may be noted with interest and favor. It was during this time that the jurisprudence of the new Republic became regular and well established in its principles. In 1801 John Marshall was confirmed as Chief Justice of the United States. His appointment marked an epoch in the judicial history of the country.

* Bonaparte accepted in payment six per cent. bonds of the United States, payable fifteen years after date. He also agreed not to sell the bonds at such a price as would injure the credit of the American government.

In the colonial times the English constitution and common law had prevailed in America, and judicial decisions were based exclusively on precedents established in the English courts. With the establishment of the new republic in 1789, it became necessary to



CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL.

modify to a certain extent the principles of jurisprudence and to adapt them to the altered theory of government. This great work was undertaken in the days of Chief Justice Jay; but it remained for Chief Justice Marshall to establish on a firm and enduring basis the noble structure of American law. For thirty-five years he remained in his high office, bequeathing to after times a great number of valuable decisions in which the principles of American jurisprudence are set forth with unvarying clearness and invincible logic.

Mention has already been made of the compact which most of the European nations had been constrained to make with the Algerine pirates. The new republic of the United States at first yielded to what seemed to be a shameful necessity and paid tribute to the Dey of Algiers, in order that American commerce might be exempt from capture; but the exemption was not observed. American merchantmen continued to be annoyed and attacked by the freebooters of the Mediterranean. All of the Barbary States—as the Moorish kingdoms of northern Africa are called—had adopted the common plan of levying tribute on the commerce of the civilized nations.

WAR WITH THE BARBARY STATES.

The leaders of this great maritime conspiracy were the Emperors of Morocco, Algiers and Tripoli. It became necessary that the young American government should do something for self-protection. Accordingly, in 1803, Commodore Preble, of the American navy, was despatched to the Mediterranean to protect the merchantmen of the United States. His squadron proceeded first against Morocco; but the frigate *Philadelphia*, under Captain Bainbridge, was sent directly to Tripoli. When nearing that city, Bainbridge gave chase to a Tripolitan pirate which fled for safety into the harbor. The *Philadelphia*, attempting to pursue ran upon a reef of rocks near the shore and was captured by the Tripolitans. The officers were treated with some respect but the crew were sold as slaves. The Emperor Yusef was greatly elated at his unexpected success.

Though the Tripolitans had taken an American man-of-war they were not able to keep their prize. In February of 1804 Captain Decatur, sailing from Sicily in a small vessel called the *Intrepid*, came at nightfall in sight of the harbor of Tripoli, where the *Philadelphia* was moored. The *Intrepid* being a Moorish ship was either unseen or unsuspected by the enemy, so that Decatur in the darkness was able to enter the harbor and come alongside of the *Philadelphia*. He quickly lashed the two ships together, sprang on deck with his daring crew of only seventy-four men and killed or drove overboard every Moor on the vessel. The frigate was immediately fired and Decatur and his men, returning to the



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ALONZO CHAPPEL PINX'T.

Intrepid, sailed out of the harbor by the light of the flames. The Tripolitan batteries opened upon the American ship, but not a man was lost and only four were wounded.

The exploit of Decatur was only the beginning of a series of movements by which the Algerine pirates were destined to be virtually exterminated. In July of 1804 Commodore Preble arrived at Tripoli with a fleet and began a siege which lasted till the following spring. The town was frequently bombarded and many of the enemy's ships destroyed, but the emperor Yusef would not come to terms. Meanwhile it was ascertained by the Americans that Hamet, Yusef's brother, who had been deposed from the throne of Tripoli, might be induced to aid in the war against the existing government. Hamet was at this time in command of an army of Mamelukes in Upper Egypt. To him General William Eaton, American consul at Tunis, was sent with proposals of an alliance against the usurping Yusef.

Hamet was not slow to accept the offer. He detached from his army a fine body of Arabian cavalry and seventy Greek soldiers and placed the same at the service of General Eaton. The latter set out from Alexandria on the 5th of March, 1805, and traversed the desert of Barca for a thousand miles. On the 25th of April he reached Derne, one of Yusef's eastern seaports. This place was, with the aid of an American fleet, taken by storm. The attacking forces were made up of Arab cavalry, Greek infantry, Moorish rebels and American sailors serving on land. Perhaps the American flag never at any other time waved above so motley an assemblage! Emperor Yusef now became thoroughly alarmed and made overtures for peace. His offers were accepted by Mr. Lear, the American consul-general for the Barbary States, and a treaty was concluded on the 4th of June, 1805. Yusef agreed that the commerce of the United States should no longer be attacked in the Mediterranean waters, and this pledge in favor of the American flag was observed for several years.

DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON.

While these events were taking place in the far east an incident occurred which will forever be memorable in our history. This was the killing of Alexander Hamilton by Aaron Burr, at that time Vice-President of the United States. The deed was done in a duel. As the first administration of Jefferson drew to a close Burr foresaw that the President would be renominated and that he himself would not be selected as the candidate of his party for a second term. Burr was a proud and ambitious man who had long had his eye on the Presidency, and was determined not to be baffled. He, therefore, while still holding the office of Vice-President, became the Democratic candidate for governor of New York. From that position he would pass to the Presidency at the close of Jefferson's second term.

But Hamilton's influence in New York was overwhelming, and Burr was defeated. His presidential ambition received thereby a stunning blow. From that day he determined to kill the man whom he regarded, or pretended to regard, as the destroyer of his hopes. He accordingly sought a quarrel with Hamilton, and though the latter studiously tried to avoid the difficulty he was drawn into the meshes, and Burr challenged him to mortal combat. Hamilton believed that to refuse to accept the challenge would, in the existing condition of public opinion, destroy his own influence and usefulness in his party and the nation. He accordingly accepted the challenge and met Burr at Weehawken, opposite New York, on the morning of the 11th of July, and was there shot at the first discharge by his antagonist. Hamilton for his part refused to fire, but when Burr's ball entered his breast and he was staggering to the fall he involuntarily clutched his pistol and it was discharged

—not, however, in the direction of his murderer. Thus, under the savage and abominable custom of duelling, the brightest intellect, the most capacious understanding in America was put out in darkness.

As had been foreseen, Jefferson was renominated and reëlected by his party to the Presidency. For Vice-President, in the election of 1804, George Clinton, of New York, was chosen in place of Burr. The government in all its departments continued under the control of the Democratic party. In the year following the election that part of Indiana Territory called Wayne County was organized under a separate territorial government, with the name of Michigan. It was in this year, namely in the spring of 1805, that Captains



DUEL BETWEEN ALEXANDER HAMILTON AND AARON BURR.

Lewis and Clarke, acting under orders of the President, set out from the falls of the Missouri River with a party of thirty-five soldiers and hunters to cross the Rocky Mountains and explore Oregon.

Many months were consumed in this the first overland expedition performed by white men across the continent. Not until November did the company reach its destination. For two years, through forests of gigantic pines, along the banks of unknown rivers, and down to the shores of the Pacific, did the adventurers continue their explorations. The story of the journey, of its perils and hardships, might well remind the reader of the days of De Soto. After wandering among unknown tribes of barbarians, encountering grizzly bears more ferocious than Bengal tigers, escaping perils by forest and flood, and traversing a route of six thousand miles, the hardy company, with the loss of but one man, returned to civilization, bringing with them authentic geographical reports of the vast domains of the west.

BURR'S SCHEME TO MAKE HIMSELF DICTATOR OF THE SOUTHWEST.

The triumph of Aaron Burr in the death of Hamilton proved to be the end of his political hopes. A great popular indignation arose over the event which, when the cir-

cumstances of the duel were once known, was seen to be nothing less than a murder. Burr was constrained to flee for refuge into the remote South. At the opening of the next session of Congress he returned to the capital and was permitted to preside over the Senate until the expiration of his term of office. With that event he delivered a valedictory, went to the west, travelled through several States, and took up a residence with an Irish exile named Harman Blannerhassett, who had laid out an estate and built a mansion on an island in the Ohio just below the mouth of the Muskingum. Here it was that Burr made a wicked and treasonable scheme against the peace and happiness of his country. He conspired to raise a sufficient military force for the invasion of Mexico. His plan was to wrest that country from the Spaniards, detach the western and southern States from the Union, make himself dictator of a southwestern empire, and perhaps subvert the government of the United States.

At these plans and conspiracies Burr labored assiduously for two years ; but his purposes were suspected. In accordance with a proclamation of the President the military preparations which were making at Blannerhassett's island were broken up, and in February of 1807 Burr himself was arrested and taken to Richmond to be tried on a charge of treason. Chief Justice Marshall presided at the trial, and the country was agitated not a little. Burr conducted his own defence, and was finally acquitted. The verdict of the jury was "Not guilty for want of sufficient proof." The escape of the prisoner, however, was narrow, and under an assumed name he fled from the country. Returning a few years afterward, he resumed the practice of law in New York city. There he lived to extreme old age, and died in September of 1836 alone and in abject poverty.

The condition of the nations of Western Europe had now become such as to draw the United States strongly towards the vortex of war. Great Britain and France had come to death-grips on both land and sea. The British navy had achieved supremacy, while the French were victorious by land. It became the policy of Great Britain to ward off foreign commerce from the coasts of France. That kind of commercial intercourse known as neutral trade suffered greatly ; for thus would Great Britain injure her rival. The American merchant marine in common with that of other nations, though engaged in innocent trade, was assailed on the high seas, kept from its destination, injured or destroyed. Great Britain struck blow after blow against the trade which France would fain carry on with foreign neutral nations, and Napoleon began to retaliate with equal energy and vindictiveness against the commercial relations of Great Britain. The measures of the two belligerent governments took the form of blockade—that is the surrounding of each other's ports with men-of-war—to prevent the ingress and egress of neutral ships. By such means the commerce of the United States which had within the last decade grown to be vast and valuable, while the European nations were fighting, was greatly distressed or swept to destruction.

AMERICA SUFFERS BETWEEN CROSS-FIRES.

The measures of the two hostile nations became more and more extreme. In May of 1806 England declared the whole coast of France, from Brest to the Elbe, to be in a state of blockade. Neutral nations had no notice of the impending decree, and many American vessels approaching the French ports were seized and condemned as prizes. All this was done while the harbors of France were not actually, but only declared to be, blockaded. The rule of war is that a blockade in order to be binding upon neutrals must be effective, that is, maintained by an effective force of the navy of the hostile State declaring the blockade.

This was not done by Great Britain, and Napoleon retaliated against his foe by issuing

a decree blockading the British Isles. By this measure the unsuspecting merchant ships of the United States were subjected to unwarranted seizure by the cruisers of France. In January of 1807 the British government retaliated with a proclamation prohibiting the French coasting-trade. The idea was that France should be hermetically sealed against all intercourse with foreign States. The belligerents had no shadow of right to take such steps towards each other, but they proceeded from one stage of arrogance to a greater, until the rights of neutral nations were not only disregarded, but treated with contempt. Of all such neutrals the nation that suffered most was the United States.

Another grievance, criminal in its character, was meanwhile revived by England, to the great distress of American commerce. This act related to trade with the colonies of France. At the beginning of the French and Indian war George II. had issued an edict forbidding neutral trade with the French colonies or with the provinces of any country with which Great Britain might be at war. This edict was known as the Rule of 1756. Its arbitrary character and injustice were sufficient to condemn it in a moment in the court of any civilized nation ; but it has always been the policy of Great Britain to uphold advantageous abuses as long as possible.

During the administration of Washington the Rule of 1756 had been applied by the mother country and complained of by the American government. In June of 1801, in a treaty between England and Russia the former agreed to modify the rule in favor of common justice. The effect was beneficial to neutral commerce, particularly to that of the United States, which soon increased five-fold while that of England declined in a nearly corresponding ratio. Great Britain has for centuries been exceedingly sensitive about her commercial supremacy. Seeing the growth of American commerce and the decline of her own, she chose in the summer of 1805 to revive by edict the Rule of 1756, and to declare it a part of the law of nations. The result, as had been foreseen, was that American commerce was virtually driven from the ocean and shrank suddenly into insignificance.

RIGHT OF SEIZURE AND SEARCH.

Next came another measure aggravating the injustice of Great Britain and provoking the anger of America. The English theory of citizenship has been that whoever is born in England remains through life an English subject. The privilege of an Englishman to expatriate himself—that is, to go abroad to throw off his allegiance to the British crown and to assume the necessary obligations of citizenship in another nation—is absolutely denied. The rule is “once an Englishman always an Englishman ;” and this principle the government of Great Britain in the first decade of our century undertook to enforce by searching American vessels and taking therefrom all persons suspected of being subjects of the British crown.

One of the chief objects had in view in this iniquitous business was the prevention of Irish emigration to the United States. The Irish people had become enamored by report of the free institutions and boundless prospects of America, and were flocking hither in great numbers. Something must, therefore, be done to stop the movement. George III. and his ministry marshalled forth the British theory of citizenship and set it up like a death's head at every port of emigration. Every Irishman or Scotchman who should venture on board an American vessel would henceforth expose himself to seizure and impressment ; it was believed that not many would take so great a risk.

The apprehensions of the emigrants were well founded ; for those who had the misfortune to be overtaken at sea were seized from under the American flag and without further inquiry were impressed as marines in the British navy. To crowd the decks of their men-

of-war with unwilling recruits torn from home and friends was the end which the British King and ministry were willing to reach at whatever sacrifice of national honor. One American ship after another was chased, overtaken and searched, until the hope of reaching the United States from Western Europe, that is, the hope of emigration, was almost extinguished. Finally to these general wrongs was added a specific act of violence which kindled the indignation of the Americans to the highest pitch.

On the 22d of June, 1807, the American frigate *Chesapeake* was hailed near Fortress Monroe by a British man-of-war called the *Leopard*. British officers came on board after their manner and demanded to search the vessel for deserters. The demand was refused and the ship cleared for action; but before the American guns could be charged the *Leopard*, being already in preparation, poured in a destructive fire and compelled a surrender. Four men were taken from the captured ship, three of whom were afterwards proved to be American citizens. Great Britain disavowed the outrage and promised reparation, but the promise was never fulfilled.

It thus became necessary for the American government to adopt the policy of retaliation. The President, in the summer of 1807, issued a proclamation forbidding British ships to enter American harbors. On the 21st of December Congress passed the celebrated Embargo Act, by which as a measure of compulsion to hostile nations all American vessels were detained in the ports of the United States. The object was to cut off commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain. The act fell heavily upon those who were engaged in foreign commerce, and there was great complaint against the policy of the government. The measure itself was of little avail, and after fourteen months of trial, the Embargo Act was repealed. Meanwhile, in November of 1818, the British government published an "Order in Council," prohibiting all trade with France and her allies. Thereupon Napoleon issued his "Milan Decree," forbidding all trade with England and her colonies. By these gross outrages done to international law the commerce of the United States was well nigh destroyed.

ROBERT FULTON'S STEAMBOAT.

It is interesting to turn from these distressing foreign complications, involving as they do the ambitions and follies and crimes of governments, to note the progress of the individual mind in its work of ameliorating the condition of the world. While the country was still distracted with the Anglo-French commercial imbroglio Robert Fulton was engaged in the invention and construction of the first steamboat. This event exercised a vast influence on the future development of the American nation. It was of the greatest importance to the people of the inland States of the Union that their rivers should be enlivened with rapid navigation. This without the application of steam was impossible. The steamboat thus came as one of the harbingers of civilization in the great valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi.



ROBERT FULTON.

Fulton was an Irishman by descent, a Pennsylvanian by birth. His education in boyhood was imperfect, but was afterwards improved by study at London and Paris. From the latter city he returned to New York, and there began the construction of a steamboat. Already his predecessors had done something in the application of steam to navigation. As early as 1786 a ferryboat at Philadelphia had been propelled back and forth across the Delaware by steam. In 1804 a steam craft capable of action was launched on the lake in what is now Central Park, New York. It remained for Fulton, however, to bring the enterprise to a practical and successful issue. He invented an ungainly boat with a steam engine for propulsion, and invited his friends to go on board for a trip from New York to Albany. On the 2d of September, 1807, a crowd gathered at the wharf to witness the experiment. The word was given, and the boat did not move. Fulton went below. Again the word was given, and *the boat moved!* She started up stream, and on the next day the company reached Albany in safety. For many years this first rude steamer, called the *Clermont*, continued to ply the Hudson.

The second term of Jefferson in the Presidency drew to a close with the spring of 1809. The great change which had been wrought during his administration was the addition of territory. The area of the United States had been vastly extended. Burr's wicked and dangerous conspiracy had come to naught. Pioneers were pouring into the valley of the Mississippi. The woods by the river shores resounded with the cry of steam. The foreign relations of the United States, however, were troubled and foreboding. Jefferson declined a third election, as Washington had done, and was succeeded in the presidential office by James Madison, of Virginia. For Vice-President, George Clinton, of New York, was honored with reelection.



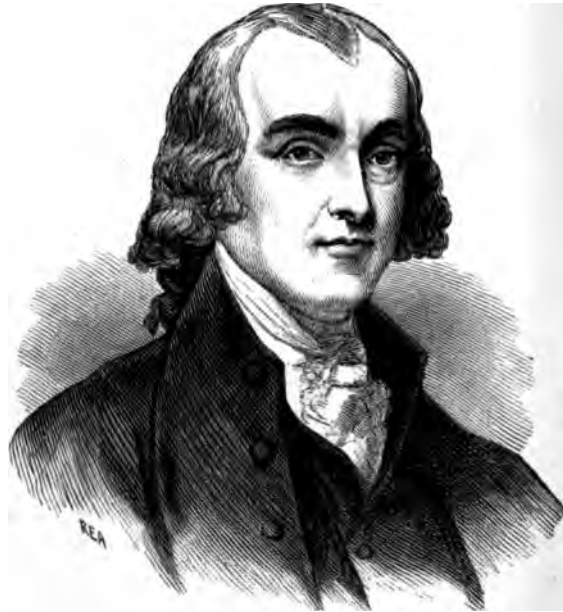
CHAPTER XX.

SECOND WAR WITH ENGLAND.



JAMES MADISON, thus raised to the highest office in the gift of the American people, was another of those scholarly Virginia statesmen who constituted in the political jargon of aftertimes what was called the "Virginia Dynasty." The new chief magistrate was born in Fort Conway, Virginia, on the 16th of March, 1751. He was the eldest of twelve children. Like Jefferson, the boy Madison received his first educational training in the school of a Scotch teacher, named Donald Robertson. Afterwards he became a student at Princeton, and was graduated therefrom in 1772. For two or three years he devoted himself to scholastic pursuits, and, for a young man, became profoundly versed in such learning as the age offered to students. He entered public life in 1776 and espoused the popular cause with the breadth and fervor of a true democrat. Madison was a member of the Continental Congress, and afterwards a delegate to the constitutional convention of 1787. He was one of the makers and defenders of the Constitution of the United States. Under Jefferson he served as Secretary of State. His election to the Presidency he owed to the Democratic party, whose sympathy with France and hostility to Great Britain were well known.

On the 1st of March the Embargo Act was repealed by Congress,* and another measure adopted instead, by which American ships were permitted to go abroad but were forbidden to trade with Great Britain. Mr. Erskine, the British minister to the United States, now gave notice that by the 10th of June the "Orders in Council" so far as they affected the United States should be repealed. In the following spring Bonaparte issued a decree for the seizure of all American ships that might approach the harbors of France; but this edict was soon annulled, and all restrictions on American commerce removed. The government of Great Britain, however, adhered to its former measures and sent ships of war to enforce the "Orders in Council."

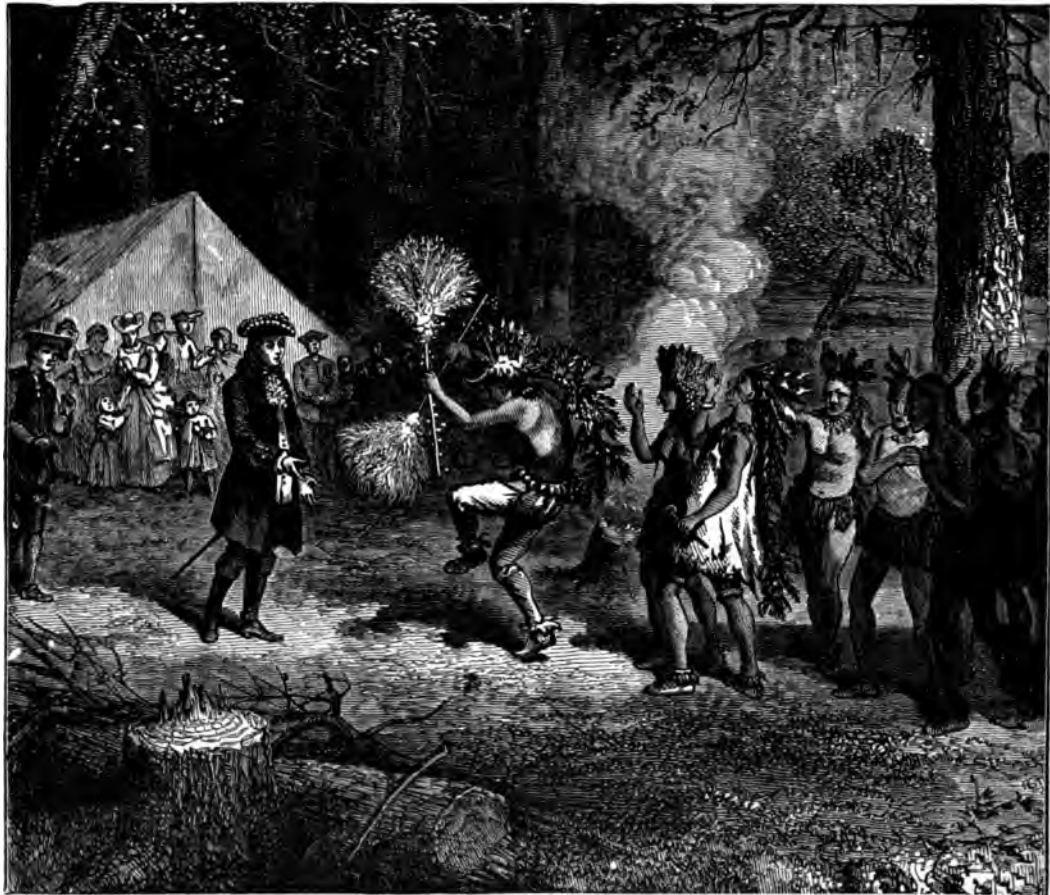


JAMES MADISON.

*The Embargo Act was the subject of much recrimination and ridicule. The enemies of the measure derisively spelled the word backward, making it the *O Grab me Act*!

It now became evident that a crisis was at hand in the affairs of the United States and Great Britain. The government of our country had fallen completely under control of the party which sympathized with France. The American people, smarting under the insults of the mother country, adopted the motto of "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights." They had made up their minds to fight rather than endure any longer the wrongs which they had suffered for fully ten years. The elections held between 1808 and 1811 showed the drift of public opinion. The sentiment of the country ran to the effect that war at every hazard was preferable to national disgrace.

The third census of the United States was taken in the spring of 1810. The population had now increased to seven million two hundred and forty thousand souls. Four new



ELKSWATAWA TRYING TO CONJURE GENERAL HARRISON.

States had been added to the original thirteen, and several of the territories were preparing for admission into the Union.

HARRISON'S VICTORY OVER TECUMTHA.

In domestic affairs everything went well with the new nation except the contact of civilization with the Indian races. The rapid march westward had aroused the jealousy of the red men, and Indiana Territory became the scene of a serious Indian war. The hostile tribes were led by the great Shawnee chief, Tecumtha (or Tecumseh), and his brother, Elkswatawa the Prophet. These two sent messages to General Harrison,

and finally visited him at Vincennes to make known their grievances. The General received the Indians and consented to discuss the questions at issue. The Prophet, however, instead of proceeding at once to set forth his complaints, indulged in many singular antics with the intention, as he expressed it, of conjuring the white man, after which strange exhibition he paused and made an imperious demand that the United States surrender the lands which had been ceded by treaty with the several separate tribes. The alternative being war, General Harrison accepted the challenge and the council broke up with both parties resolved upon hostilities. The Prophet and Tecumtha proceeded immediately to collect their forces on the Tippecanoe, a few miles north of the present city of Lafayette. Thither General Harrison, the territorial governor, in command of the whites, had marched by way of the Wabash stations from Vincennes.

Harrison reached the destined battle-ground and encamped there on the evening of the 6th of November, 1811. Negotiations had been opened with the Indians, but the natives were treacherous, after their manner, and had plotted the destruction of the Americans. In the early morning of the 7th the savages, seven hundred strong, crept through the marshes to the east of Harrison's camp, surrounded his position and made an impetuous attack. The militia, fighting in the darkness, held the Indians in check until daylight and then routed them in several vigorous charges. On the next day the Americans burned the Prophet's town, not far away, and soon afterwards returned victorious to Vincennes. The campaign was so successful as to bring great reputation to General Harrison, and to lay the foundation for his future preferment to the Presidency of the United States.

FIRST GUN OF THE WAR OF 1812.

While peace was thus established by the sword in the Ohio valley, war had begun on the ocean. Great Britain and the United States renewed the conflict which it had been hoped was forever ended by the treaty of 1783. On the 16th of May, 1811, Commodore Rodgers, commanding the frigate *President*, hailed a vessel off the coast of Virginia. Instead of a polite answer he received a cannon ball in the mainmast. Rodgers responded with a broadside and the enemy's guns were silenced. When light came with the morning the hostile ship was found to be the British sloop of war called *Little Belt*. The event produced great excitement throughout the country.

The engagement of the two vessels had been without law or declaration of hostility. In general the country still hoped for peace, but the hope was delusive. On the 4th of November the Twelfth Congress of the United States assembled. Though the Democrats were in the ascendant, many of the members believed that hostilities might be avoided, and thus the winter passed without decisive measures. On the 4th of the following April it was deemed necessary to pass an act laying embargo for ninety days on all British vessels that might be found within the harbors of the United States. This comparatively mild measure was adopted in the hope that war, actual war, might be avoided. But Great Britain, heated in her conflict with France, would not recede from her hostile attitudes and methods. Her anger was so great that she was willing to engage in an irrational and unjust war with the American republic, and the time had come for the beginning of the struggle. Meanwhile, before the actual outbreak of hostilities, Louisiana, the fifth new State, was, on the 8th of April, 1812, admitted into the Union. Her population had at the time of admission reached seventy-seven thousand.

On the 19th of June in this year a declaration of war was issued by Congress against Great Britain. Vigorous preparations were made for the conflict. It was ordered to raise twenty-five thousand regular troops and fifty thousand volunteers. The several States were

requested to call out their militia contingents to the number of a hundred thousand. A national loan of eleven million dollars was authorized and General Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was chosen commander-in-chief of the American armies.

Though hostilities existed on the sea between the merchantmen and cruisers of the two nations, the actual war was begun in what was then the northwest of the United States. General William Hull, governor of Michigan Territory, led the first campaign, which proved to be sufficiently disastrous. On the 1st of June, 1812, he set out from Dayton, Ohio, with a force of fifteen hundred men. For a full month the army toiled



SCENE OF HULL'S
CAMPAIGN, 1812.

through the forests to the western extremity of Lake Erie. Arriving at the Maumee, Hull attempted to send his baggage by water to Detroit, but the British at Malden were on the alert and captured Hull's boat with everything on board. Nevertheless the Americans pressed on to Detroit, and on the 12th of July crossed the river to Sandwich.

At this point Hull received information that Mackinaw had fallen into the hands of the British. He, therefore, retraced his course to Detroit, and from this place sent back Major Van Horne to meet a division of reinforcements which had arrived under Major Brush at the River Raisin. Tecumtha, chief of the Shawnees, had after the battle of Tippecanoe, in which he was not a participant, made his way to Canada and associated himself with the British. The chief, learning of the advance of Van Horne's forces, laid an ambush for them near a place called Brownstown and succeeded in destroying or dispersing the detachment. Colonel Miller with another division, however, attacked and routed the savages with great losses and then made his way to Detroit.

Meanwhile the British and Canadians under Governor Brock rallied at Malden, and from that place advanced on the 16th of August to lay siege to Detroit. The Americans were well prepared to receive the enemy. They lay in their trenches and awaited the battle during the British advance. When the latter were within five hundred yards Hull *hoisted a white flag over the fort!* Then followed a surrender the most shameful in the history of the United States. All the forces under Hull's command became prisoners of war. The whole of Michigan Territory was surrendered to the British. Hull was afterwards court-martialed for cowardice and was sentenced to be shot, but the President pardoned him.

Thus inauspiciously for the United States began the second war with Great Britain. Three days after the surrender of Detroit the American frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, a man of very different mettle from the General, overtook the British *Guerriere* off the coast of Massachusetts. The vessels manœuvred for a while, the *Constitution* closing with her antagonist until at half-pistol shot she poured in a broadside, sweeping the decks of the *Guerriere* and deciding the contest at a single discharge. On the following morning the British vessel having become unmanageable was blown up, but Captain Hull secured his prisoners and spoils and returned in safety to port.

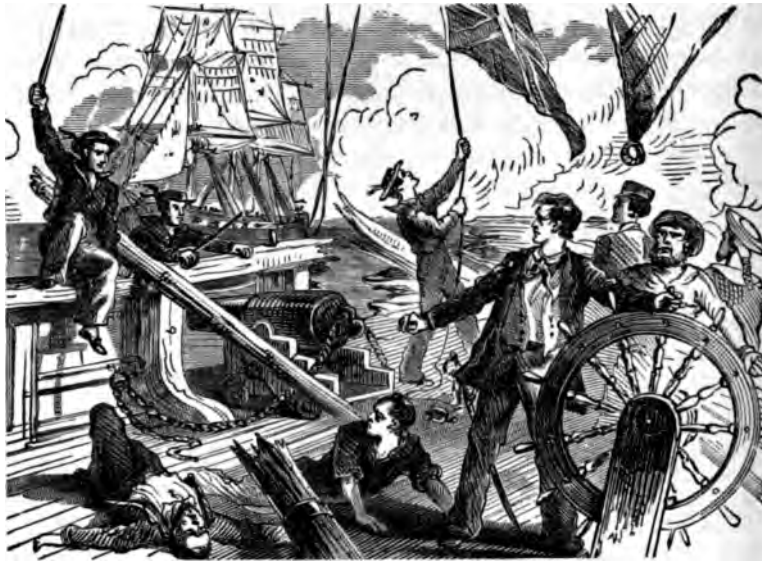
CAPTURE OF THE BRIG FROLIC.

Such was the opening of the contest on the sea. On the 18th of October the American man-of-war *Wasp*, under Captain Jones, fell in with a fleet of merchantmen off the coast of Virginia. The squadron was under convoy of a war vessel called the *Frolic*, commanded by Captain Whinyates. A terrible engagement ensued, lasting for three-quarters of an hour. Finally the American ship was brought alongside, and Jones's crew boarding

the *Frolic* struck the British flag and captured the ship outright. Soon afterwards, however, the *Poictiers*, a British seventy-four gun ship, hove in sight and bore down upon the victorious Americans. The *Wasp* was captured and the wreck of the *Frolic* retaken by the superior force of the enemy.

After his work in the Mediterranean Commodore Stephen Decatur had returned to the American waters and was given command of the frigate *United States*. In this vessel he went on a cruise to the Canary Islands and a short distance from that group fell in with and captured the British war ship *Macedonian*. The loss of the enemy in killed and wounded was more than a hundred men.

On the 12th of December the ship *Essex*, under command of Captain Porter, captured the *Nocton*, a British packet having on board fifty-five thousand dollars in specie. On the 29th of the month the *Constitution*, now commanded by Commodore Bainbridge, overtook the British *Java* on the coast of Brazil. A furious battle ensued and after two hours of fighting the *Java* was reduced to a wreck. The British flag was struck and the crew and passengers numbering upwards of four hundred were transferred to the *Constitution*.



CAPTURE OF THE FROLIC

What remained of the enemy's vessel was burned at sea. The news of these unvarying successes roused the enthusiasm of the American people to the highest pitch.

As soon as practicable after the capitulation of Hull a new expedition was organized against Canada. On the 13th of October a force of a thousand men under command of General Stephen Van Rensselaer crossed the Niagara River to capture Queenstown. The British had learned of the movement and stationed a force at the water's edge. This, however, was driven away and the batteries of the enemy on the adjacent heights were carried. In a short time the British rallied, but were a second time repulsed. Here it was that General Brock, governor of Canada, was mortally wounded. The Americans, thus for the time victorious, entrenched themselves and awaited reinforcements; but no recruits came to the rescue; the British returned to battle and the Americans after losing a hundred and sixty men were obliged to surrender. At this juncture General Van Rensselaer resigned the command of the northern forces and was succeeded by General Alexander Smyth.

The Canadian border became the scene of renewed hostilities. The Americans gathered in force at Black Rock, a few miles north of Buffalo, and on the 28th of November a detachment crossed to the Canada shore. This movement, however, was recalled by General Smyth as premature. A few days later a second crossing was undertaken, but was not effected, and the Americans went into winter quarters. It soon appeared that General Smyth was incompetent for the command. The militia became mutinous, and the General under charge of cowardice was deposed. Thus came the autumn of 1812 and with

it the presidential election. Madison was chosen for a second term; but the Vice-Presidency passed from Clinton to Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts.

DEFEAT AND MASSACRE AT RAISIN RIVER.

Thus far the war had been feeble and desultory. With the spring of 1813 the American forces were organized into three divisions, known as the Army of the North, under General Wade Hampton; the Army of the Centre, under the commander-in-chief; the Army of the West, under General Winchester, who was soon superseded by General Harrison. The last named division was first to move. In the early part of January Winchester set out in the direction of Lake Erie to regain the ground lost by Hull. On the 10th of the month the advance came to the rapids of Maumee. A detachment then pressed forward to Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, captured the place, and on the 20th of the month were joined by Winchester with the main division.

On the 22d of January, the Americans were assaulted by a British and Indian army, twenty-five hundred strong, under command of General Proctor. The fight went against



FORT MEIGS.

the Americans. Winchester was taken prisoner and sent word to his army to capitulate. This done, the American wounded were attacked by the Indians and butchered after the manner of savagery. The American prisoners were dragged off through untold sufferings to Detroit, where they were held until their ransom was effected by the government. These two disasters, one in 1812 and the other in the following year, gave to the river Raisin an ominous memory until the survivors, and even their children, finally passed away.

General Harrison now left in command of the Army of the West, or of

what remained of it, built Fort Meigs on the Maumee. Here he was besieged by a British army numbering two thousand, inclusive of the Indian allies under command of Proctor and Tecumtha. Meanwhile General Clay, with a force of twelve hundred Kentuckians, had set out from his own State and was advancing to the relief of the fort. With the rumor of his coming the Indians in large numbers deserted and Proctor, thus weakened, abandoned the siege and retreated to Malden. At the latter place the British were reinforced to nearly four thousand men and in July made a second expedition against Fort Meigs.

GALLANT DEFENCE OF FORT STEPHENSON.

The garrison of this fort, however, could not be drawn from the fortifications or driven out by battle. Proctor was at length obliged to file off with half his forces for an attack on Fort Stephenson, at Lower Sandusky—a place which seemed to the British General more accessible to assault. The fort was defended by only a hundred and sixty men under Colonel Croghan, a stripling but twenty-one years of age. The event showed, however, that he had in him the instinct and passion of battle. On the 2d of August, the confident British came on to storm the fort. They crowded into the trench, but the sequel showed that Croghan had so planted his guns as to command the approach. When the trench was

filled with men, the cannons were discharged and the attacking column was swept away almost to a man. The repulse was complete. Proctor at once raised the siege of Fort Meigs, and returned to Malden.

Thus far in the contest on our northwest border the advantage had been with the British, from the fact that they controlled Lake Erie. On that water they had a squadron of six vessels. It was now deemed necessary to gain control of the lake from the enemy, and the work was intrusted to Commodore Oliver H. Perry. His antagonist, the commander of the British fleet, was Commodore Barclay a veteran from the wars of Europe. Perry equipped his vessels, nine in number, at Put-in-Bay, and was soon able, through the extraordinary energy which he displayed, to get afloat. On the 10th of September the two squadrons met not far from land, and a battle at once ensued.

The engagement was begun by the American squadron, Perry's flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, leading the attack. Barclay's ship was the *Detroit*. The British vessels were fewer in number, but their guns had a longer range and were better served. The contest between the two flag-ships was desperate. The *Lawrence* was ruined, and the *Detroit* was almost wrecked. It became necessary for Perry to transfer his flag to another vessel. He accordingly got overboard into an open boat, and carried his pennant to the *Niagara*. With this powerful vessel he immediately bore down upon the enemy's line, drove through the midst, discharging deadly broadsides to right and left. In fifteen minutes the British fleet was reduced to a state of helplessness. Perry returned to the floating hull of the *Lawrence* and there received the surrender of the enemy's squadron. He then sent to General Harrison his laconic despatch: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."



COMMODORE PERRY LEAVING HIS FLAG-SHIP FOR
THE NIAGARA.

The control of Lake Erie was thus gained by the Americans, and a way opened for the invasion of Canada. On the 27th of September, General Harrison's army was carried across to Malden. The British fell back before him as far as the river Thames, but there halted and prepared for battle. A field was chosen having the river on one side of the British position and a swamp on the other. Here, on the fifth of October, Proctor was attacked by Harrison and Shelby.

DEFEAT AND DEATH OF TECUMTHA.

In the beginning of the battle the British general fled. The regulars were broken by an attack of the Kentuckians under Colonel Richard M. Johnson. The Americans were thus enabled to turn against the Indians, who, to the number of fifteen hundred, had taken one of their favorite positions in the adjacent swamp. There Tecumtha had staked all on the issue of battle. For a while the war-whoop of the great chieftain was heard above the din of the conflict. Presently, however, his voice ceased to call to his warriors; for Tecumtha was no more. The savages, appalled by the death of their leader, fled in despair, and the Americans were left completely victorious. So ended the campaign of

1813 in the west. All that Hull had lost in the previous year was regained, and much more taken.

The Indian races of the Mississippi valley had now, with good reason, come to dread the aggression and progress of the white race. They saw in the Americans a force before



SCENE OF THE CREEK WAR,
1813-14.

which their own people must recede into oblivion. From north to south the native tribes of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys were in a state of vigilant hostility. While Harrison's campaign in the northwest was under way, the Creek nation of Alabama rose in arms. In the latter part of August, Fort Mims, forty miles north of Mobile, was attacked and taken by the savages, who destroyed about four hundred people in their sudden insurrection.

The governors of Tennessee, Georgia and Mississippi were obliged to make immediate and strenuous preparations for the repulse of the savages. The Tennesseans under General Andrew Jackson were the first to rise to the rescue. The advance force of nine hundred men, led by General Coffee, first struck the enemy at their town of Tallushatchee, burned it, and left not an Indian alive. It was the first blow of a desperate and bloody struggle. On the 8th of November, a second battle was fought at Talladega, and the savages were again defeated with heavy losses. A third fight occurred on the Tallapoosa, at the Indian town of Autosse, where the natives were again disastrously routed.

By these movements the daring Jackson had carried his forces far into the Indian country. Nor were his supplies sufficient for such an expedition. His hungry men became mutinous, and were going to march homeward; but a mutiny among Jackson's men was a dangerous thing for the mutineers. The general set his men the example of living on acorns which he roasted and carried in his pockets. After this exhibition of endurance he threatened with death the first man who should stir from the ranks; and



DEFEAT OF THE INDIANS AT TALLAPOOSA.

no man stirred! By the middle of January Jackson was able to renew hostilities. On the 22d of the month he gave the enemy battle at Mucfau, where the Tennesseans were

again victorious. At Horse-shoe Bend, the Creeks gathered in force and made their final stand. On the 27th of March the Whites, under General Jackson stormed the breastworks and drove the Indians into the bend of the river. There huddled together a thousand Creek warriors, with the women and children of the tribe, met their doom. The nation was completely conquered, almost exterminated.

CAPTURE OF TORONTO AND DEATH OF GENERAL PIKE.

We may now return to the spring of 1813 and trace the movements of the Army of the Centre under the commander-in-chief. On the 25th of April, in that year, General Dearborn embarking his forces at Sackett's Harbor, proceeded against Toronto. This place was the most important depot of supplies in British America. By this time an American fleet under command of Commodore Chauncey had obtained control of Lake Ontario. On the 27th of the month the American advance, seventeen hundred strong, under General Pike, landed near Toronto. The British were driven from the water's edge and their first batteries were carried by the Americans, who then rushed forward to storm the main defences. At that moment, however, the British magazine blew up with terrific violence. Two hundred men were killed or wounded by the explosion. General Pike himself was fatally injured. But the Americans continued the charge and the British were driven out of Toronto. Property to the value of a half million dollars was secured to the victors who were not very careful to use their victory as not abusing it.

Meanwhile a counter movement was made by the British against Sackett's Harbor. The expedition, however, was not successful ; for General Brown, rallying the American militia, drove back the assailants. For reasons that do not well appear the American force at Toronto was soon withdrawn from its vantage ground and recrossed the lake to the mouth of the Niagara. Soon afterwards, on the 27th of May, a force led by Generals Chandler and Winder carried the British position of Fort George by storm. The garrison escaping, retreated to Burlington Bay, at the western extremity of the lake.

Much confusion marks the military history of the year 1813. After the battle of the Thames General Harrison transferred his forces to Buffalo, and then, though seemingly in great favor with the public, resigned his commission. General Dearborn also withdrew from the service and the command-in-chief was transferred to General James Wilkinson, already aged and incompetent. The next active campaign was planned by General Armstrong and was designed for the conquest of Montreal. The Army of the Centre was ordered to join the Army of the North on the St. Lawrence ; but the movement was not effected with energy or celerity. On the 5th of November, seven thousand Americans, embarking twenty miles north of Sackett's Harbor, sailed against Montreal. Parties of British, Canadians and Indians gathering on the left bank of the St. Lawrence, impeded the progress of the expedition. General Brown was sent ashore with a considerable detachment to drive the enemy into the interior. On the 11th of November was fought the severe but indecisive battle of Chrysler's Field. The Americans then passed down the river to St. Regis, where the forces of General Hampton were expected to form a junction with Wilkinson's command. But Hampton did not arrive ; and the division of Wilkinson went into winter quarters at Fort Covington.

Meanwhile the British on the Niagara frontier rallied and recaptured Fort George. Before abandoning the place, however, General McClure, commandant of the American garrison, burned the town of Newark. This act cost the people of Northern New York dearly ; for the British and Indians soon effected a crossing of the river, took Fort Niagara

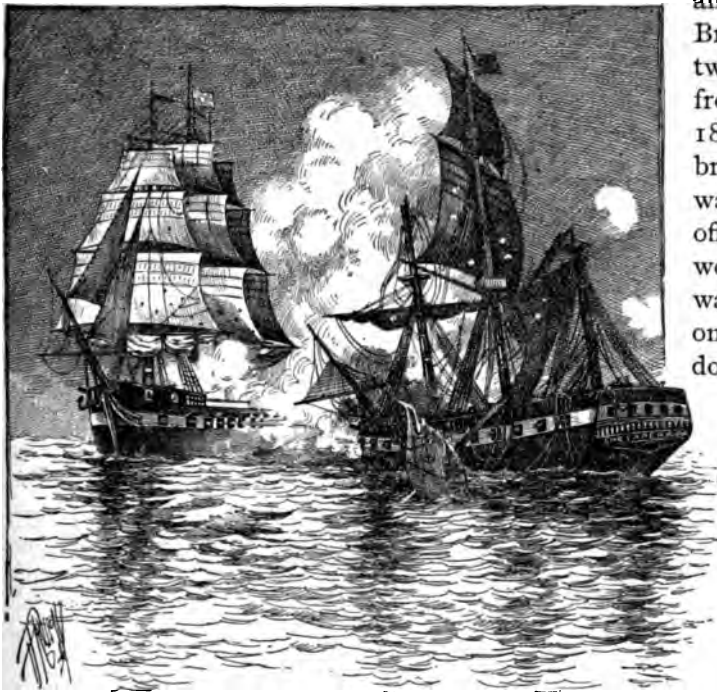
and in retaliation burned the villages of Youngstown, Lewiston and Manchester. On the 30th of December Black Rock and Buffalo were laid in ashes by the enemy.

DESPERATE ENGAGEMENT BETWEEN THE CHESAPEAKE AND THE SHANNON.

From this indecisive and half-barbarous war on the northern frontier we may turn again to the sea. On the 24th of February, 1813, the American war-sloop *Hornet*, commanded by Captain James Lawrence, overtook the British brig *Peacock* off the coast of Demerara. A terrible battle of fifteen minutes ensued and the *Peacock* surrendered. While the Americans were transferring the conquered crew, the wrecked brig gave a lurch and was swallowed from sight. Nine British sailors and three of Lawrence's men were sucked down in the whirlpool.

Captain Lawrence by his victory gained great reputation. On returning to Boston he was transferred to the command of the *Chesapeake*.

With this strong ship he put to sea and was soon challenged by Captain Broke of the British *Shannon*. The two vessels joined battle eastward from Cape Ann on the 1st of June, 1813. The conflict was obstinate, brief and dreadful. The *Chesapeake* was wrecked. In a short time every officer on board was either killed or wounded. Captain Lawrence himself was struck with a ball and fell dying on the deck. As they bore him down the hatchway he gave his last famous order, which became the motto of the American sailors—"Don't give up the ship!" The *Shannon* towed her prize into the harbor of Halifax, where the bodies of Lawrence and Lieutenant Ludlow were buried with the honors of war by the British.



ENGAGEMENT BETWEEN THE CHESAPEAKE AND SHANNON.

The capture of the *Chesapeake* seemed to be a turn in the tide by which the fortunes of the American navy were borne down and lost in ever-recurring defeat. On the 14th of August, the British *Pelican* overtook the American brig *Argus*, and obliged her to surrender. On the 5th of September, the British brig *Boxer* was in turn captured by the American *Enterprise*, off the coast of Maine. Captain Blyth, the British commander, and Captain Burrows, of the *Enterprise*, were both killed in the battle, and were buried side by side at Portland. On the 28th of March, 1814, while the ship *Essex*, under command of Captain Porter, was lying in the harbor of Valparaiso she was attacked by two British vessels, the *Phoebe* and the *Cherub*. Captain Porter fought bravely until nearly all his crew were killed or wounded, and then surrendered the remnant to his antagonists.

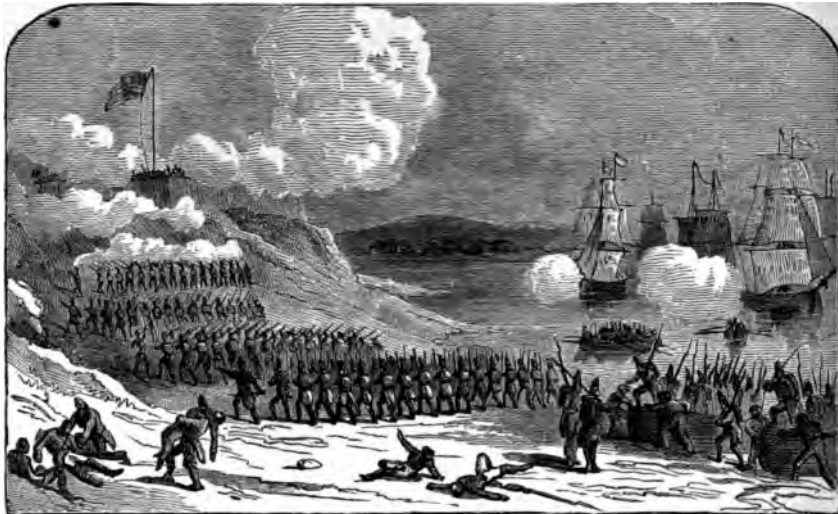
Next came an era of marauding. Early in 1814, Lewiston was bombarded and taken by a British squadron. Other British men-of-war entered the Chesapeake, and sending de-



NAVAL DUEL BETWEEN THE CONSTITUTION AND GUERRIERE.

tachments ashore here and there, burned the villages on the bay. At the town of Hampton, the soldiers and marines perpetrated great outrages. On the coast of New England the war was conducted in a more humane manner. There Commodore Hardy, a regular officer of the British navy, was in command, and the Americans had no cause to complain of other than the necessary hardships of war.

With the spring of 1814 another invasion of Canada was planned by the Americans; but there was much delay in beginning the campaign. Not until the 3d of July did Generals Scott and Ripley, with three thousand men, cross the Niagara river and capture Fort Erie. On the next day the Americans advanced on Chippewa village; but before reaching that place they were met by the British army under command of General Riall. On the next day, towards evening, a severe battle was fought on the plain south of Chippewa river, and the Americans, commanded by Scott and Ripley, won the field. General Riall fell back to Burlington Heights, and the Americans advanced to a position on the high grounds in sight of Niagara Falls.



ATTACK ON OSWEGO.

"The summer campaign opened with the capture by the British of the fort at Oswego, although it was stubbornly and bravely defended by its commander, Colonel Mitchell. May 5th the town was bombarded and a fruitless attempt made to land. The next day the effort was renewed successfully. Mitchell thereupon abandoned the fort, which mounted only five guns, and after annoying the English as much as he could he retreated to Oswego Falls. Having dismantled the works and burned the barracks, the enemy retired."

BLOODY LUNDY'S LANE.

Here, on the evening of the 25th of July, was fought the hardest battle of the war. General Scott, commanding the American right, was hard pressed by Riall, but held his ground until reinforced by the other divisions of the army. The British reserves were brought into action, and as twilight faded into darkness both armies were at death-grips in the struggle. A detachment of Americans getting upon the British rear, succeeded in capturing General Riall and his staff; but the main line was still unbroken. The key to the enemy's position was a high ground crowned with a battery. Calling Colonel James Miller to his side, General Brown, according to the tradition of the battle, said "Colonel, take your regiment and storm that battery." "I will try, sir," was Miller's answer; and the battery was taken and held against three successive assaults of the British. General Drummond was wounded, and the British army, numbering about five thousand, was driven from the field with a loss of more than eight hundred men. The Americans lost an equal number; but were jubilant with their victory.

Soon after this battle of Niagara, or Lundy's Lane, as it was popularly called, the

American forces fell back to Fort Erie. General Gaines, at this time in command at Buffalo, crossed over from that place and assumed command of the army. General Drummond, who had succeeded General Riall, was reinforced, and on the 4th of August invested Fort Erie. The siege continued until the 17th of September, when the Americans made a sortie, and the British siege was raised. On the 5th of November, Fort Erie was destroyed by the Americans, who recrossed the Niagara, and took up winter quarters at Black Rock and Buffalo.

Meanwhile General Wilkinson, with the army of the North, had passed the winter of 1813-14 at Fort Covington. With the coming of spring the American commander undertook an invasion of Canada. At a place called La Colle, on the river Sorrel, he attacked the British and was defeated. He then fell back to Plattsburg, was relieved of the command and superseded by General Izard.

At this time Lake Champlain was under control of an American fleet, commanded by Commodore McDonough. The British General Prevost advanced into New York with an army of fourteen thousand men, and at the same time ordered Commodore Downie to ascend the Sorel with his fleet. The invading army succeeded in reaching Plattsburg, where Commodore McDonough's squadron lay at anchor in the bay. On the 6th of September, General Macomb retired with his forces to the south bank of the Saranac. This stream was made the line of defence, and for four days the British made ineffectual efforts to cross the river. Downie's fleet had now come into position for action, and a general battle was planned for the 11th. Prevost's army was to carry Macomb's position and the British squadron was to attack McDonough at the same time.

The naval battle began first, and was obstinately fought for two and a-half hours. Gradually victory inclined to the side of the American vessels. Commodore Downie and many of his officers were killed. The heavier British ships were disabled one by one, and obliged to strike their colors; the smaller escaped. The British army on shore gave battle, but after a severe action that also was defeated, with considerable losses. Prevost retired precipitately to Canada, and the English ministry began to devise measures of peace.

At the same time the war on the Atlantic coast was prosecuted with more vigor than the enemy had hitherto shown. Late in the summer Admiral Cochran arrived off the Virginia coast with a squadron of twenty-one vessels. He had on board, besides his crews, a veteran army numbering four thousand, under General Ross. The American fleet in the Chesapeake, under command of Commodore Barney, was unable to oppose so powerful an armament. The British entered the bay with the purpose of attacking Washington and Baltimore. The larger division sailed into the Patuxent, and on the 19th of August General Ross debarked with his division at Benedict.

CAPTURE AND BURNING OF WASHINGTON.

Commodore Barney was now obliged to blow up his vessel and take to the shore. The British advanced against Washington. No adequate preparations had been made for their resistance. At Bladensburg, six miles from the capital, the enemy was met, on the 24th of the month, by the forces of Commodore Barney. Here a battle was fought, but the militia behaved badly, and Barney was defeated and taken prisoner. The way was thus opened to the capital. It only remained for the President, the cabinet and the people to betake themselves to flight. As for Ross and his army, they marched unopposed into Washington. All the public buildings except the Patent Office were burned. The unfinished Capitol and the President's house were left a mass of ruins. In justification of these pro-

ceedings, amounting to barbarism, the British alleged the principle of retaliation and the previous bad conduct of the Americans, who at Toronto and other places on the Canadian frontier had behaved but little better.

The other division of the British fleet came presently to Alexandria. The inhabitants finding themselves at the mercy of the enemy, purchased forbearance by the surrender of twenty-one ships, sixteen thousand barrels of flour and a thousand hogsheads of tobacco. As soon as General Ross had completed his work at Washington he proceeded with his army and fleet to Baltimore. There the American militia to the number of ten thousand gathered for defence under command of General Samuel Smith. On the 12th of September, the British came to land at the mouth of the Patapsco, and the fleet began the ascent of the river. The land division was soon confronted by the American advance under General Stricker. A skirmish ensued in which General Ross was killed; but Colonel Brooks assumed command, and the invasion was continued until the British came upon the American lines near the city and were brought to a halt.

By this time the British squadron had ascended the Patapsco and begun a cannonade of Fort McHenry. From sunrise of the 13th of September until after midnight the guns and mortars of the fleet poured a tempest of shells upon the fortress, but no impression could be made upon the works.* It was clear that Fort McHenry was too strong for the assailants. The British became disheartened, and ceased to fire. The land forces retired coincidentally with the fleet, and Baltimore was saved from capture.

The coast of New England suffered here and there from the incursions of the enemy. On the 9th and 10th of August the village of Stonington, Connecticut, was bombarded by Commodore Hardy; but the British, attempting to land, were driven back. The New England fisheries, however, were in most places broken up. The salt-works at Cape Cod were about to be destroyed, but escaped by the payment of heavy ransoms. The blockade was severe. All the harbors from Maine to Delaware were sealed to foreign commerce. The trade of the Eastern States, upon which so much of the prosperity of that section of the Union depended, was almost totally destroyed.

POLITICAL DISSENSIONS GROWING OUT OF THE WAR.

For these reasons many of the men of New England were opposed to the prosecution of the war. The Federalists, as a measure of political opposition, cried out against its continuance. The legislature of Massachusetts advised the calling of a convention to consider the condition of the country and the means of reaching a peace. The other Eastern States responded to the call, and on the 14th of December the delegates assembled at Hartford.

As a political movement this meeting drew great odium to its promoters. The leaders of the Democratic party did not hesitate to say that the purposes of the assembly were disloyal and treasonable. On convening the delegates sat with closed doors. What their discussions were has never been fully known. The session lasted for nearly three weeks, and was ended with the publication of an address in which the injustice and impolicy of the war were held up to condemnation. But the convention was of little effect as it related to the course of events, except that the political prospects of those who participated in the proceedings were ruined.

The war of 1812—so-called—was now drawing to a close. A student of general his-

* It was during the night of the bombardment that Francis M. Key, detained on board of a British ship and watching the American flag over Fort McHenry—seen at intervals by the glare of rockets and the flash of cannon—composed *The Star Spangled Banner*.

tory will remember that the Napoleonic dynasty in France was tottering to its downfall. The continental nations were concentrating their energies around the French empire, and the little Man of Destiny, who for nearly twenty years had made them tremble in their capitals, was already an exile at Elba. The American war was attracting but little attention abroad. Great Britain herself prosecuted her American campaigns and expeditions languidly and with indifference.

During the progress of the conflict Spain—particularly the Spanish authorities of Florida—had sympathized with the British. In August of 1814, a British fleet was permitted by the commandant of Pensacola to use that port for the purpose of preparing an expedition against Fort Bowyer, on the bay of Mobile. General Jackson, who commanded in the South, remonstrated with the Spaniards for this breach of neutrality, but received no satisfaction. He thereupon marched a force against Pensacola, took the town by assault, and expelled the British from Florida.

It was in the prosecution of this campaign that Jackson learned of the preparations of the British for the conquest of Louisiana. This information was altogether to his liking, as it gave free scope for his restless and daring nature to strike the enemy at his own discretion. He repaired at once to New Orleans, where he declared martial law, mustered the militia, and adopted measures for repelling the invasion. From La Fitte, the notorious smuggler of the West Indies, he learned the enemy's plans. A British army twelve thousand strong, under command of Sir Edward Pakenham, was coming from Jamaica. On the 10th of December, the squadron entered Lake Borgne, sixty miles northeast of New Orleans.

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

From this point Pakenham began to make his advance towards the city. On the 22d of the month he reached the Mississippi about nine miles below New Orleans, and on the next night Generals Jackson and Coffee made a bloody assault on the British position. But the Americans were not in sufficient strength to succeed in such manner, and were obliged to fall back to a more favorable position on the canal, about four miles below the city. Pakenham advanced, and on the 28th began a cannonade of the American position. On New Year's Day, 1815, he renewed the attack with some spirit, but was repulsed. After this the British commander made preparations for a general battle.

For this Jackson was ready. He had constructed earthworks and thrown up a long line of cotton-bales and sand-bags for the protection of his forces. The British moved forward, and after some manœuvring came to battle on the 8th of January. The conflict began with the early morning, and was ended before nine o'clock. Column after column of the British regulars was thrown forward against the American intrenchments, only to be smitten with irretrievable ruin. Jackson's men were almost entirely secure from the enemy's fire, while every discharge of the Tennessee and Kentucky rifles told with fearful effect on the British. Pakenham was killed. General Gibbs was mortally wounded. Only General Lambert was left to call the fragments of the army from the field.

The victory of Jackson was perhaps the most decisive and startling in the history of American warfare. Of the British forces seven hundred were killed, fourteen hundred wounded and five hundred taken prisoners. The loss of the Americans amounted to *eight men killed and thirteen wounded*! General Lambert retired with the wreck of his army into Lake Borgne, while Jackson, marching into New Orleans, was received with the greatest enthusiasm.

The battle of New Orleans was the last blow of our second war with the mother country. There were no further engagements on land. On the sea there were a few

additional conflicts like those which had characterized the beginning of hostilities. On the 20th of February, the American *Constitution*, cruising off Cape St. Vincent, captured two British vessels, the *Cyane* and the *Levant*. On the 22d of March, 1815, the American *Hornet* made an end by capturing the British *Penguin* off the coast of Brazil.

But these sea-battles, as well as the battle of New Orleans itself, had been fought under flags which were no longer hostile. Already a treaty of peace had been concluded. In the summer of 1814 American commissioners were sent to Ghent, in Belgium, and were there met by the ambassadors of Great Britain. The agents of the United States were John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell and Albert Gallatin. The British commissioners were Lord Gambia, Henry Goulburn, and William Adams. On the 24th of December the terms of reconciliation and settlement were agreed to and signed. In both countries the news was received with profound satisfaction. The causes of the war had been from the first factitious and without definition. On the 18th of February, 1815, the treaty was ratified by the Senate of the United States and peace was publicly proclaimed.



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

It could not be said that either nation was the victor. Both had fought and suffered to little purpose. These facts of the irrationality of the war came out strongly in the terms of pacification. Indeed, there never was a more absurd treaty than that of Ghent. Its only significance was that Great Britain and the United States, having been at war, agreed to be at peace. Not a single one of the distinctive issues to decide which the war had been undertaken was settled or even mentioned in the compact with which it was ended. Of the impressment of American seamen not a word was said. The wrongs done to the commerce of the United States were not even referred to. The rights of neutral nations were left as undetermined as before. Of "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights," which had been the battle-cry of the American navy, no mention was made. The whole treaty was circumlocutory and inconsequential. The principal articles were devoted to the settlement of unimportant boundaries and the possession of some petty islands in the bay of Passamaquoddy!

EFFECTS OF THE WAR.

There is little doubt, however, that at the time of the treaty of Ghent Great Britain gave private assurance to the United States that impressment on the high seas and the other wrongs complained of by the Americans should be practised against them no more. Thus much at least was gained. For the space of more than seventy-five years vessels bearing the flag of the United States have been exempt from such insults as led to the war of 1812. Another advantage gained by America was the recognition of her

naval strength and prowess. It was no longer doubtful that the American sailors were the equals of any in the world. Their valor and patriotism had challenged the admiration of all nations. It was no small triumph for the republic that her flag should henceforth be honored on all seas and oceans.

The troubles of the American navy with the Algerine pirates of the Mediterranean have more than once been mentioned on former pages. The war between the United States and Great Britain gave opportunity to the Moorish sea-robbers to renew their depredations. At the close of the conflict the government of the United States made haste to settle the score with the African pirates. Commodore Decatur was ordered to proceed to the Mediterranean and to chastise them into final submission. He had the good fortune, on the 17th of June, to fall in with the principal frigate of the Algerine squadron, and this ship, after a severe fight, was compelled to surrender. Two days afterwards he captured another frigate. In a short time he sailed boldly into the bay of Algiers and was able to dictate to the frightened Dey an advantageous and honorable treaty. The Moorish Emperor agreed to release his American prisoners without ransom, to relinquish all claims to tribute and to give a pledge that his ships should trouble American merchantmen no more. Decatur followed up the good work by sailing against Tunis and Tripoli, both of which powers he compelled to give pledges of good conduct and to pay large sums in the way of indemnity for former depredations.

FOUNDING OF A NEGRO FREE STATE.

We thus reach the close of the epoch of our second war with the mother country. Before the end of Madison's administration the Territory of Indiana was organized and admitted into the Union. The new commonwealth was received by act of Congress on the 11th of December, 1816. About the same time was founded the Colonization Society of the United States, having for its object the establishment of a refuge for free persons of color. Many distinguished American citizens became members of the association and sought to promote its interests. Liberia, on the western coast of Africa, was selected as the seat of a proposed colony, to be founded by the freemen of the African race emigrating from America. A sufficient number of these went abroad to establish a flourishing negro state; but the enterprise has never answered to the expectations and hopes of its promoters. The capital of Liberia was named Monrovia, in honor of James Monroe, who in the fall of 1816 was chosen as Madison's successor in the Presidency. For Vice-President the choice fell on Daniel D. Tompkins of New York.

The one great benefit of the war of 1812, so far as our country was concerned, was that the conflict conduced greatly to the *independence* of the United States. The American nation became more conscious of its own existence, more self-sufficient than ever before. The reader of general history will have readily perceived that the war was really a side issue of the greater struggle going on in Europe. On the part of Great Britain the conflict was conducted but feebly—as though she knew herself to be in the wrong. As soon as a fair opportunity was presented she receded from a contest in which she had engaged in only a half-hearted and irresolute way and of which she had good cause to be ashamed. At the close of the conflict the historian comes to what may be called the Middle Ages of the United States—an epoch in which the tides of population rolled through the notches of the Alleghanies into the Mississippi Valley, tending to a powerful physical civilization, in which, however, the institution of African slavery began to throw its black and portentous shadow athwart the historical landscape.

CHAPTER XXI.

MIDDLE AGES OF THE UNITED STATES.



AFTER the war of 1812 the United States entered a period of an unheroic character. Tragedy disappeared from our annals. Nor could it be truthfully said that great deeds of peace took the place of the excitement and vicissitudes of the battle-field. Nevertheless, the era upon which we are here to enter will be found replete with interest. A new and more humane spirit may be discovered among the people. The nineteenth century, towards the close of its first quarter and the beginning of the second, yielded itself somewhat to a more benign genius than that which had dominated the eighteenth to its close. In the present chapter we are to follow the annals of our country from the accession of James Monroe to the

Presidency to the epoch of the war with Mexico.

The new President was a Virginian by birth and education, being the fourth and last of the so-called "Virginia Dynasty." All the chief magistrates thus far, with the exception of the elder Adams, had been chosen from the Old Dominion. Monroe was born on the 28th of April, 1758. He was educated at William and Mary College, from which institution he went out in 1776 to become a soldier of the Revolution. He was a young man of valor and great abilities. In the battle of Trenton he received a British ball in his shoulder. He served under Lord Stirling in the severe campaigns of 1777-78, being in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown and Monmouth. After the Revolution he became a student of law with Thomas Jefferson, at that time governor of Virginia. He served in the Virginia assembly; and at the age of twenty-six was sent to Congress. He was one of those who first discerned the inutility of the Articles of Confederation and who exerted themselves for the adoption of a better constitution for the United States.

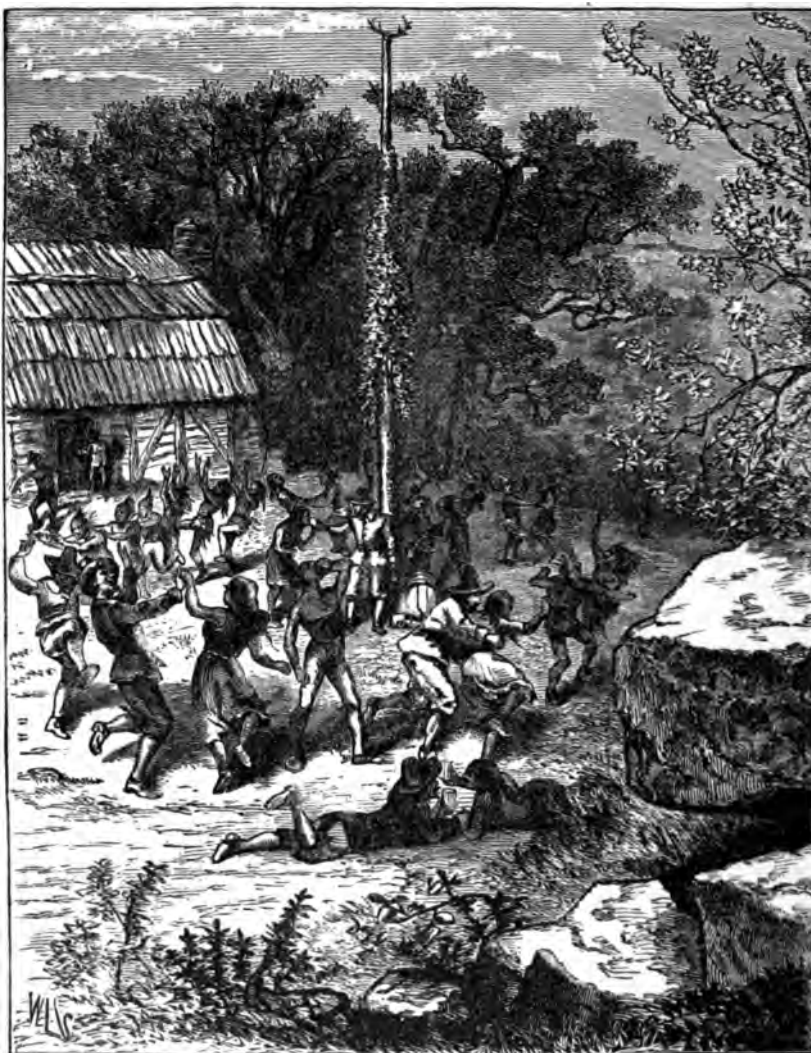
Monroe was a member of the constitutional convention of 1787, and three years afterwards was elected Senator of the United States from Virginia. In 1794 he was sent as plenipotentiary to France, and was one of those who negotiated the purchase of Louisiana. Afterwards he was appointed American minister to the court of St. James. He was one of the many who, beginning public life as a Federalist, under the leadership of Washington changed gradually to a more democratic type of opinion and policy, until he took his place in the same category of statesmen with Jefferson and Madison. In 1811 Monroe was chosen governor of Virginia, and when Madison came to the Presidency was appointed Secretary of State. His election to the Presidency was reached by an overwhelming vote of a hundred and eighty-three out of a total of two hundred and seventeen. He chose for his cabinet John Quincy Adams as Secretary of State, William H. Crawford as Secretary of

the Treasury, John C. Calhoun as Secretary of War, Benjamin W. Crowninshield as Secretary of the Navy, and William Wirt as Attorney-General.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

The Democratic principles which had marked the administrations of Jefferson and Madison were adopted and furthered by Monroe. The stormy times of the second decade of the century, however, now gave place to years of unbroken peace. The animosities and party strifes which had prevailed to so great an extent since the death of Washington seemed for a season to subside. The statesmen who determined the policy of the government devoted themselves earnestly to the payment of the national debt. Wise measures were adopted for the liquidation and funding of the national burden, and commerce was speedily revived. The government was economically and faithfully administered. Monroe had many of the political characteristics of the Father of his Country, and his official duties were performed in the spirit of patriotism and devotion to the public welfare. The population of the country rapidly increased. Wealth, as the result of production and commerce, began to flow in, and in a few years the war debt was fully and honestly discharged.

The first foreign trouble of the United States was a difficulty between the government and the little kingdom of Hayti in the northern part of San Domingo. Suspicions arose that Louis XVIII., the newly restored Bourbon King of France, would endeavor to obtain the sovereignty of the island and secure its annexation to the French kingdom. Under the Napoleonic ascendancy Hayti had been for a time one of the possessions of France, and there was an attempt to maintain under the restoration what had been won by the sword of Bonaparte.



CONFIRMING A TREATY BETWEEN WHITES AND INDIANS.

At this juncture the sovereign of Hayti was a certain Christophe, who became anxious to secure the recognition of his independence by the government of the United States. Nor was this expectation disappointed. The President, altogether unwilling that France should be intermeddling with the political affairs of the American islands, met the overtures of the Haytian king with favor. An agent of the government was sent out in the frigate *Congress* to conclude a treaty of amity and commerce with the insular kingdom. The President, however, took pains that his agent should not rank as a plenipotentiary. On this score the Haytian authorities were offended, and the negotiations were broken off.

Better success attended the work of forming a new treaty with the Indians of the territory northwest of the River Ohio. The tribes most concerned in the new compact were the Wyandots, the Delawares, the Senecas and the Shawnees. Other native nations interested were the Chippewas, the Ottowas and the Pottawattamies. The question at issue related to the Indian lands in the broad country between the upper Ohio and Lake Erie. It was at this time that the Indian title to the valley of the Maumee was procured. The cession and purchase of about four millions of acres were accomplished as one feature of the treaty, and it may well surprise the reader to know that the sum paid for this vast and fertile tract did not exceed fourteen thousand dollars! In addition to this purchase-money, the Delawares were for their part to receive an annuity of five hundred dollars, while the combined annuities guaranteed to the Wyandots, the Senecas, the Shawnees and the Ottowas amounted to about ten thousand dollars. The Chippewas and Pottawattamies were granted an annuity of three thousand five hundred dollars for fifteen years. Certain tracts were also reserved by the red men for their homes and hunting grounds amounting to an aggregate of about three hundred thousand acres.

The belief of our publicists at this time was that the Indians, surrounded by the vast and progressive settlements of the white race, would soon be assimilated to the civilized life and be gradually absorbed as a part of the nation. This expectation, however, was doomed to disappointment. It was soon discovered that the Indians had little sympathy with American farms and villages and civilized methods of life. The habits of barbarism were too strongly fixed through ages of heredity and no aptitude for the anticipated change was seen on the part of the sequestered aborigines.

Thirty years had now elapsed since the formation of the Constitution. The new system of government seemed to be working well and to have lodgment in the hearts of the people. In no respect did the provisions of the fundamental law apply more successfully than in the admission or addition of new States to the Union. The next territory after Indiana to apply for the privileges and rights of Statehood was the Territory of Mississippi, which was organized and admitted in 1817. The new commonwealth contained an area of forty-seven thousand square miles and brought a population of sixty-five thousand. This work completed the extension of the State system on the southwest as far as the Mississippi, from the mouth of the Illinois to the Gulf of Mexico.

REVIVAL OF BUCCANEERING.

In the planting of new civilizations on our continents vast opportunities were given to the restless and lawless classes to undertake and pursue systems of crime against national and international authority. One of the most favorable scenes for such manner of life was the West Indies and the littoral parts of Florida. Off the northeastern coast of the last-named State a nest of buccaneers was established on Amelia Island. The piratical combination had its origin and opportunity in the Revolutionary movements which had been going on in New Grenada and Venezuela. A certain Gregor McGregor who held a commis-

sion from the insurgent authorities of New Grenada gathered a band of freebooters from many parts, particularly from Charleston and Savannah, and with these fortified and held Amelia Island, making it a sort of headquarters for slave-traders and South American privateers.

It was doubtless believed by the audacious rascals that the sympathy of the United States for the republican tendency shown in South America at this time would save them from disturbance. The buccaneers *seemed* to be acting in the cause of South American liberty, and they hoped by this attitude to escape attack from the government of the United States. They began under this infatuation to carry matters with a high hand, and presently proceeded to blockade the port of St. Augustine. In doing so they demeaned themselves as if there were no civilization or retributive justice which they had cause to fear. The government of the United States, however, soon took action against the pirates and sent a fleet which succeeded in breaking up their establishment on Amelia Island. A similar assemblage of freebooters which had been established on the island of Galveston, off the coast of Texas, was in like manner suppressed.

Now it was that the question of the internal improvement of the United States as a measure of national policy first presented itself as a practical issue. The population of the republic was rapidly moving westward and filling up the Mississippi valley. The necessity for thoroughfares and other physical means of intercourse and commerce rose upon the people as a condition of their further progress. The territorial vastness of the country made it imperative to devise suitable means of communication between the distant parts. Without thoroughfares and canals it was evident that the rich products of the almost limitless interior of the country could never reach a general emporium or foreign market. It was also evident that private capital and enterprise were not sufficient for the production of the needed improvements ; but had Congress, under the Constitution, the right to vote money for the prosecution of such enterprises ?

CONTENTION BETWEEN DEMOCRATS AND FEDERALISTS.

This question became one of political division. The Democratic party had from the first been what is known as the party of strict construction. The Democratic doctrine was that whatever is not positively conceded and expressed in the Constitution has no existence in the American system of government. The Federalists, on the other hand, claimed that the Constitution of the United States is pregnant with implied powers, and that these may be evoked under the necessities of any given situation and directed to the accomplishment of any desired end. Jefferson and Madison had been the leaders and organizers of the doctrine of strict construction. They and their party had opposed internal improvements under national patronage. Monroe held a similar view—though less strenuously—and the propositions in Congress to make appropriations for the internal improvement of the country were either voted down or vetoed.

To this policy there was only a single exceptional instance. A bill was passed appropriating the necessary means for the construction of a National Road across the Alleghanies from Cumberland to Wheeling. This was an extension of the great thoroughfare which had already been constructed from Peninsular Virginia to Cumberland, and which was afterwards carried, though without completion, from Wheeling westward through Ohio, Indiana and Illinois to St. Louis.

With the passage of the act for the building of the National Road the question of other internal improvements was referred to the several States as a concession to their rights.

Under this legislative action, New York took the lead by constructing at the public expense a magnificent canal from Buffalo to Albany, a distance of three hundred and sixty miles. By this means the waters of the great lakes were conveniently united with those of the Hudson and the Atlantic. The cost of the canal was more than seven and a half million dollars, and the whole period of Monroe's administration was occupied in completing the work.

JACKSON'S HEROIC MEASURES FOR SUPPRESSING THE SEMINOLES.

In the year 1817 the Seminoles, occupying the frontiers of Georgia and Alabama, broke into hostilities against the whites. It has frequently been difficult in the history of our country to ascertain the exact causes of Indian hostilities. Perhaps the hereditary instincts of war on the part of the savage races sought expression at intervals in blood and violence. Otherwise the land question may be ascribed as the true cause of the larger part of Indian hostilities in America. In the case of the Seminole outbreak considerable numbers of half-savage Negroes and Creek Indians joined in the depredations.

At the beginning of hostilities the government ordered General Gates, commandant of the post on Flint River, to march into the Seminole country and reduce the savages to submission: but that officer after destroying a few villages found himself unable to proceed. It was alleged that his forces were inadequate for the campaign. General Jackson, of Tennessee, was hereupon ordered to collect from the adjacent States a sufficient army to reduce the Seminoles to submission. The general, however, took his own course in the matter, and mustered about a thousand riflemen out of west Tennessee, with whom in the following spring he marched against the Indians and overran the hostile country. General Jackson had acquired among the natives the sobriquet of the *Big Knife*, and his name spread terror among them.

The expedition of Jackson was followed by a serious episode. The General, while on his march against the Indians, had entered Florida and taken possession of the Spanish post at St. Marks. He gave as a reason for doing so that the place was necessary as a base of operations against the savages. The Spanish garrison which had held St. Marks was removed to Pensacola. At the time of the capture of the place two Englishmen, named Arbuthnot and Ambrister, were found at St. Marks, and charges were preferred against them of having incited the Seminole insurrection. They were tried, convicted of treacherous acts, condemned and executed.

Jackson then marched against Pensacola, took the town, besieged the fortress and compelled the Spanish authorities to take ship for Havana. These measures excited a bitter animosity against General Jackson, and he was subjected by his enemies to unmeasured condemnation and abuse. The President and Congress, however, upheld him in his reckless proceedings, and his reputation was increased rather than diminished by his arbitrary conduct. The great secret of his popularity and influence was his success and honesty. A resolution of censure upon him introduced into the House of Representatives was defeated by a large vote.

Other important results followed in the train. When the news from Florida was borne to Spain the king entered protests against Jackson, but his remonstrance was little heeded by the American government. The Spanish monarch began to perceive the unprofitableness and difficulty of maintaining such a provincial government as Florida at so great a distance from the home administration of the kingdom. It became evident that the defence of Florida would in all probability cost him more than the country was worth. He accordingly proposed a cession of the province to the United States. For this purpose

negotiations were begun at Washington, and on the 22d of February, 1819, a new treaty was concluded, by which East and West Florida and the outlying islands were surrendered forever to the United States. In consideration of the cession, the American government agreed to relinquish all claims to the Territory of Texas, and to pay to citizens of the United States for depredations committed by Spanish vessels a sum not exceeding five millions of dollars. By the same treaty it was agreed that the boundary line between the United States and Mexico should be the river Sabine.

MONEY CRISIS OF 1819.

Almost coincidently with this important treaty came the first great financial crisis to the United States. The American Republic had been poor in resources. The people as a rule, were small property-holders to whom capital, as that term is understood in more recent times, was a stranger. At length, however, wealth increased and financial institutions grew into such importance as to make possible a crisis in monetary and commercial affairs. We have already seen how, in the year 1817, the Bank of the United States was reorganized. With that event came improved facilities for credit, and with these facilities the spirit and fact of speculation. With the coming of speculation, dishonesty and fraud arose, and the circle of finance ran its usual course, until the strain was broken in a crisis. The control of the Branch Bank of the United States at Baltimore was obtained by a band of speculators who secured the connivance of the public officers in their schemes. About two millions of dollars were withdrawn from the institution over and above its securities. President Cheves, however, who belonged to the Superior Board of Directors, adopted a policy by which the rascality of the management was discovered and exposed. An end was put to the system of unlimited credits, and the business of the country at length swung back into its accustomed channels.

Other new States soon followed Mississippi into the Union. In 1818 Illinois, being the twenty-first in number, or the eighth new State, was organized and admitted. The new commonwealth embraced an area of over fifty-five thousand square miles. The population at the time of admission was about forty-seven thousand. In December of the following year Alabama was added to the Union. The new State in this instance brought a population of a hundred and twenty-five thousand and an area of nearly fifty-one thousand square miles.

About the same time civilization as expressed in civil rule took its stride across the Mississippi. The great territory of Missouri was divided into two. The southern part was organized into Arkansas Territory, while the northern half continued to bear the name of Missouri. In 1820 the province of Maine, which had remained under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts since 1652, was separated from that commonwealth and admitted into the Union as a State. The population of Maine at this time had reached two hundred and ninety-eight thousand; the territory embraced nearly thirty-two thousand square miles. In August of 1821 the Territory of Missouri, embracing an area of sixty-seven thousand square miles and a population of seventy-four thousand, was admitted as the twenty-fourth member of the Union. But the admission was attended with a political agitation so violent as to threaten the peace of the United States and to foretoken a long series of events the effects of which have not yet disappeared from the history of our country.

THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE.

The question at issue was that of African slavery in the proposed State of Missouri. The bill for the admission of that commonwealth, or rather for the organization of the

Territory for admission, was brought before Congress in February of 1819. Before this time, however, slave-holders in large numbers had gone into Missouri carrying their human chattels with them. The issue was at once raised in Congress whether a new State should be admitted with the system of slave labor prevalent therein, or whether by Congressional action slaveholding should be prohibited. A motion to amend the territorial bill was introduced by James Tallmadge, of New York, to the effect that any further introduction of slaves into Missouri should be forbidden, and that all slave children in the new commonwealth should be granted their freedom on reaching the age of twenty-five.

This amendment was adopted and became for the time a part of the organic law for the Territory. A few days afterwards, when a bill was presented for the Territorial organization of Arkansas, a motion was made for the insertion of a clause similar to the Tallmadge amendment in the Missouri bill. In this case there was a heated debate, and the proposed amendment was defeated. The mover of the same, John W. Taylor, of New York, then introduced a resolution that thereafter, in the organization of Territories out of that part of the Louisiana purchase which lay north of the parallel of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes, slavery should be prohibited. This resolution was also defeated after a heated debate. Meanwhile Tallmadge's amendment to the Missouri bill was brought up in the Senate, and was defeated in that body. As a consequence of this legislation, real and attempted, the two new Territories of Missouri and Arkansas were organized *without restrictions in the matter of slavery*.

The people of Missouri now proceeded to form their State Constitution according to the provisions of the Enabling Act. In January of 1820 a bill for the admission of the State under the Constitution so formed was brought up in Congress. The resolution of admission was, however, strenuously opposed by the large and growing party of those who favored the exclusion of slavery from the public domain of the United States. At this juncture, however, a proposition was made for the admission into the Union of the new free State of Maine. The situation was advantageous to the pro-slavery party; for that party might oppose the admission of Maine as a free State until the admission of Missouri as a slave State should be conceded.

The debates became angry and were extended until the 16th of February, when a bill coupling the two new States together, one with and the other without slavery, was passed. Hereupon Senator Thomas, of Illinois, made a motion that henceforth and forever slavery should be excluded from all that part of the Louisiana cession—Missouri excepted—lying north of the parallel of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes. This motion prevailed and became known as the Missouri Compromise, one of the most celebrated and important acts of American legislation—a measure chiefly supported and carried through Congress by the genius and persistent efforts of Henry Clay.

A summary of the principal provisions of the Missouri compromise shows the following results: First, the admission of Missouri as a slave-holding State; second, the division of the rest of the Louisiana purchase by the parallel of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes; third, the admission of new States to be formed out of the territory south of that line with or without slavery as the people might determine; fourth, the prohibition of slavery in all the new States to be organized out of the territory north of the dividing line. Thus by a measure of compromise and concession, the slavery agitation was allayed for twenty-eight years. The event, however, showed that the national disease was too deep-seated to be eradicated with a compromise.

The conditions of prosperity in the country were now so universal that the administration, as is common in such cases, was rewarded with good opinion and good will. The President came into high favor with the people. In the fall of 1820 he was reëlected with great unanimity, as was also Mr. Tompkins, Vice-President. Perhaps at no other time in the history of our country since the administration of Washington has the bitterness of partisanship so nearly expired as in the year and with the event here mentioned.

DESTRUCTION OF WEST INDIAN PIRACY.

Early in Monroe's second term the attention of the government was recalled to the alarming system of piracy which had sprung up in the West Indies. Commerce became so unsafe in all those parts of the sea into which the piratical craft could make their way that an armament had to be sent out for protection. In the spring of 1822 the frigate *Congress*, with eight smaller vessels, sailed to the West Indies, and before the end of the year more than twenty pirate ships were run down and captured. In the following summer another squadron, under command of Commodore Porter, was sent to cruise about Cuba and the neighboring islands. The piratical retreats were found and the sea robbers who had for their leader the famous buccaneer Jean La Fitte were driven from their lair. Their establishments were broken up and their business ended by suppression. Not a pirate ship was left afloat to trouble further the honorable commerce of the sea.

It was at this epoch that the government of the United States and the American people became deeply interested in the republican revolutions which were taking place in the countries of South America. Since the days of Pizarro the States in question had been dependencies of European monarchies; but the political ties thus stretching across the Atlantic were broken ever and anon with declarations of independence and revolutionary wars. The situation was very similar to that which existed in 1776 between the Old Thirteen Colonies of North America and the mother country. It was but natural that the United States, successful in winning their independence, should sympathize with the revolutionists and patriots of the southern continent. Many leading American statesmen espoused the cause of South American liberty and their voices were heard in behalf of the struggling republics beyond the isthmus of Darien.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

Foremost among the public men of the period who spoke out for the emancipation of the South American States was Henry Clay. He carried his views into Congress and gained the endorsement of that body to the principles which he advocated. In March of 1822 a bill was passed recognizing the independence of the new States of South America. The President sympathized with these movements and in the following year took up the question in his annual message. In that document he stated the principle by which his administration should be governed as follows: That for the future the American continents were not to be considered as subjects for colonization by any European power. The declaration thus made, however vague it may seem in the retrospect, became famous at the time, and has ever since held its place in the politics and diplomacy of the United States, under the name of the Monroe Doctrine—a doctrine by which the United States seemed to be committed to the principle that the western hemisphere shall be, at least theoretically, consecrated to free institutions.

The summer of 1824 brought an incident of great rejoicing to the American people. The opportunity was afforded them to revive and express their gratitude to France for the sympathy and aid which she had given to the United States in the War of Independence. The venerable Marquis de Lafayette, now aged and gray, returned once more to visit the

COLUMBUS AND COLUMBIA.

land for whose political freedom he had given the energies of his youth and indeed shed blood. Many of the veteran patriots with whom he had fought side by side came to greet him, and the younger heroes, sons of the Revolution, crowded around him. His journey from city to city was a continuous triumph. One of the chief objects coming was to visit the tomb of Washington. Over the dust of the Father of his Country the patriot of France paid the homage of his tears. He remained in the country until the summer of 1825, when he bade final adieu to the American people and sailed for his native land. At his departure the frigate *Brandywine*—a name significant to him—was put to bear him away; and the hour of his going was observed with every mark of affection and gratitude on the part of the great and rising people of the west.

Thus came to a close the second administration of James Monroe. Political excitement had now reappeared in the country and there was a strong division of sentiment, sectional in its origin. Bitter personalities likewise appeared in the contest. For the first time the names of South and East and West were heard, and the patriotic eye might see the premonitions of danger in the political phraseology of the day.

The marshalling of parties was to a certain extent along sectional lines. John Quincy Adams, son of the second President, was put forward as the candidate of the East; V. H. Crawford, of Georgia, as the choice of the South; while Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson appeared as the favorites of the West. The overwhelming preponderance of the Democratic party at this time made it possible for several candidates thus to enter the field; for the old convention system had not yet destroyed individuality in American politics.

In the election of 1824 no one obtained the requisite majority of electoral vote; this circumstance the election was thrown, for the second time in the history of the country, into the House of Representatives. By that body John Quincy Adams, though not the foremost candidate, was duly elected. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had received the requisite majority in the electoral college and was thus chosen Vice-President. The old administration expired and the new began with the 4th of March, 1825.

CAREER OF J. Q. ADAMS.

It is probable that in talents and accomplishments the new chief magistrate was superior to any man who has ever occupied the presidential chair. It is not meant to force of character or ability to meet great emergencies he was the equal of Washington, Lincoln or Grant; but he had genius, scholarship, great attainments. From his birth he had been educated to the career of a statesman. When he was but eleven years old he accompanied his father, John Adams, to Europe. At Paris, Amsterdam and St. Petersburg the son continued his studies and thus became acquainted with the manners, language and politics of the Old World. The vast opportunities of his youth were improved to the fullest extent. He was destined to a public career. While still young he served his country as ambassador to the Netherlands, to Portugal, to Russia and to England. His abilities such as to draw from Washington the extraordinary praise of being the ablest minister which America could boast. From 1774 to 1817 his life was devoted almost wholly to diplomatic services at the various European capitals.

It should be remembered that at this period the foreign relations of the United States were critical in the extreme. Indeed the new republic had hardly yet been fully established as an independent power amongst the nations. The genius of Adams secured for the country the adoption of treaty after treaty. Such was his acumen, his patriotism, that in every treaty the rights and dignity of the United States were fully asserted and maintained. In 1806 Adams was chosen Professor of Rhetoric and Belles-Lettres in Harvard College.

Afterwards he was Senator for the United States from Massachusetts. On the accession of Monroe to the Presidency he was appointed Secretary of State. All the antecedents of his life were such as to produce in him the rarest qualifications for the Presidency to which he was now called.

In one respect the new administration was less successful, less peaceful than its predecessor. The revival of partisanship, the animosity of great party leaders, conspired to distract the country, to keep the public mind from the calm pursuits of peace and to mar the harmony of the nation. Indeed from this epoch we may date the beginning of politics as a despicable trade in which the interests of the people of the United States have been hawked and torn, bartered and sold at the dictation of unscrupulous ambition and for mere personal ends.

Soon after the accession of Adams the adherents of General Jackson and Mr. Crawford united in opposition to the policy of the President. A want of unanimity appeared among the different departments of the government. It was soon found that the supporters of the administration were in the minority in the Senate, while their majority in the House of Representatives was held only to the close of the first session of the current Congress. The President favored the policy of internal improvements. That system of polity, however, was antagonized by the majority of the Democratic party, and that majority soon came into the ascendant. As a consequence of this break the recommendations of the President were neglected or condemned in Congress, and that system of internal improvements to which Mr. Clay gave the full resources of his genius was checked for a generation.

DIFFICULTIES OVER INDIAN TITLES.

Difficulties with the Indians now arose on the side of Georgia. During the first quarter of the century considerable portions of territory east of the Mississippi were still held by the natives. In Georgia they possessed a wide domain. Here dwelt the great nation of the Creeks with whom the white men had had relations since the founding of the first colonies. In 1802 Georgia as a State relinquished her claim to the Mississippi Territory, but one of the conditions of the surrender was that the government of the United States should purchase in the interest of Georgia all the Creek lands lying within her borders. This pledge the government failed to fulfil. Georgia became seriously dissatisfied. The difficulty grew alarming, and the general government was constrained to carry out the compact by forming a new treaty with the Creek chiefs for the purchase of their lands and the removal of their people to new territories beyond the Mississippi.

Here were the elements of the ever-recurring difficulty. The Indians have been, as a rule, unwilling to recognize the validity of pledges made by their ancestors relative to their national lands. Such a thing as ownership in fee simple was unknown originally among the native races. They recognized the right of quit-claim, by which those occupying lands could alienate their own titles thereto, but not the titles of their descendants. It is for this reason that, since the days of King Philip, the government has found great difficulty in securing the extinction of the Indian titles to their lands—this for the reason that each generation of natives born in a given territory arises to claim the tribal lands with no recognition of a right on the part of their fathers and grandfathers to alienate those lands by sale or cession.

We may pause to notice an incident of the summer of 1826. On the memorable Fourth of July in that year Thomas Jefferson and John Adams both expired at nearly the same hour. It might well impress the American mind that just fifty years to a day from the adoption of the Declaration of Independence the great author of that famous document and



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GENERAL JACKSON'S VICTORY AT NEW ORLEANS.

its principal promoter in Congress should have passed away together. They were the two most conspicuous patriots of the Revolutionary epoch. They more, perhaps, than any other two men had agitated the question of independence and supported the measure as a policy for the United Colonies. Both had lifted their voices for freedom in the earliest and most perilous days of the Revolutionary era. Both had lived to see their country's independence achieved. Both had served that country in its highest official station. Both had reached extreme old age; Adams was ninety, Jefferson eighty-two. Though opposed to each other as it respected many political principles, both were alike in patriotism and loyalty to the republic. It was a significant circumstance that while the cannon were booming for the fiftieth anniversary of the nation the two illustrious patriots should pass from among the living at the hour of reaching the half-centennial of their greatest work.

DISAPPEARANCE OF WILLIAM MORGAN.

It was in the autumn of this year that a serious social disturbance in the State of New York led to a temporary deflection in the political history of the times. William Morgan, of that State, a member of the fraternity of Free and Accepted Masons, broke with the order and threatened to publish its secrets. He suddenly disappeared and was never authentically heard of afterward. Rumors of his whereabouts gained currency, but none could ever be traced to a trustworthy origin. The belief became common that either his life had been taken or that he had been privately and permanently exiled into the obscurity of some foreign country. The Masons fell under the suspicion of having abducted him, and a great clamor was raised against the fraternity in New York. The animosity against the Masons extended in other parts of the country and their enemies became united as a political party. For many years the anti-Masonic party exercised a considerable influence in local and general elections. De Witt Clinton, one of the most prominent and valuable statesmen of New York, lost his political place and influence on account of his membership in the Masonic order.

More important than these temporary agitations was the debate which now began in Congress with respect to the tariff. The discussions of this vital issue may be dated from the year 1828. By a tariff is understood a customs duty levied on imported goods. The object of the same is two-fold: first, to produce a revenue for the government; secondly, to raise the price of the article on which the duty is laid, in order that the domestic manufacturer of the thing taxed may be able to compete with the foreign producer. In a subsequent part of this work a full discussion of this question will be presented. In the present connection it is sufficient to note that when a customs duty is levied for the purpose of raising the price of the article on which the duty is laid it is called a protective tariff.

The soundness of the policy of such a tariff has been agitated in nearly all the civilized countries. As a rule, in the earlier parts of a nation's history, protective tariffs are adopted, even to the extent of shutting off foreign competition; but with the lapse of time and the accumulation of capital in the given country the tendency is in the opposite direction. The mature people generally incline to the principle of free trade and open competition among the nations.

The Congressional debates of 1828 revealed the fact that the administration and its supporters proper were in favor of a protective tariff. In that year a schedule of customs was prepared by which the duties on fabrics made of wool, cotton, linen and silk, and those on articles manufactured of iron, lead, etc., were much increased. This legislation was had with the primary motive of stimulating the manufacturing interests of the country. The question of a tariff in the United States has always taken a somewhat sectional aspect.

At first the people of the Eastern and Middle States, where factories abounded, were favorable to protective duties, while the people of the agricultural regions of the South and West opposed the protective policy.

NEW ISSUES BEFORE THE NATION.

Several general facts respecting the period of Adams's administration may well impress themselves upon the attention of the reader. It was at this epoch that the influences of the Revolution, more particularly of the War for Independence, subsided by the death or retracy of the great actors in that early scene, and the sentiments of a new era began to prevail. It was the beginning of the second epoch in the history of the United States. A new class of statesmen, born after the era of independence, began to direct public opinion and manage the affairs of government. Even the war of 1812 with its bitter antagonisms and absurd ending, faded gradually from the memories of men. New dispositions, new tastes, appeared among the people, and new issues confronted the public. Old party lines could no longer be traced with distinctness. The old party names had become a jargon. Meanwhile the United States as a nation had surpassed the most sanguine expectations of the fathers. The one serious danger of the times was the evidences apparent in Congress that the people of the United States had fallen under the dominion of that very system against which the Father of his Country had uttered his most solemn warnings, namely, the system of partisanship and purely political government, instead of a government of the whole people, for them and by them.

Like his father, the younger Adams was disappointed in securing a second election to the Presidency. The people of the country, especially those of the great and rising West, had never taken kindly to the plan and fact of Adams's election. It was claimed that the result four years previously had been reached by a coalition in which there was a virtual agreement that the supporters of Mr. Clay in the House of Representatives should elect Adams on condition that the latter would make their favorite Secretary of State. This was done ; but there is no evidence that there was any corrupt bargain between the two distinguished statesmen.

Adams received the support of Clay for reelection ; but the President was handicapped from the start. A new political division now became distinct, the opposition to the administration taking the Democratic name, while the administration party took the new name of Whigs. Of the former Andrew Jackson became the acknowledged leader and standard-bearer in the presidential contest. He was triumphantly elected, receiving a hundred and seventy-eight electoral votes against eighty-three for his opponent. The election was one of great excitement and passion ; but the elements fell to a calm when the decision was reached, and the thoughts of the people were turned to other than political interests.

JACKSON THE MILITARY HERO.

Andrew Jackson was a native of North Carolina. He was born in the Waxhaw country, March 15th, 1767. Even in his boyhood he showed in his character and conduct the belligerent and stormy nature within him. His mother's plan of devoting him to the ministry was hopelessly defeated. Already at the age of thirteen we have seen him in battle with Sumter at Hanging Rock. Captured by the British, he was maltreated and left to die of small-pox ; but his mother secured his release from the Charleston prison and he soon began the study of law.

At twenty-one young Jackson went to Nashville. At twenty-nine he was chosen to the National House of Representatives from his district in Tennessee. Here his turbulent

and arbitrary disposition manifested itself in full force. In 1797 he was elected to the Senate of the United States, where he remained for a year without making a speech or casting a vote. He was thoroughly disgusted with the urbane and lofty life of the Senate and resigned his seat to return to Tennessee. His subsequent career as a warrior and commander of men we have noted in the preceding pages.

It is needless to remark that it was Jackson the military hero who was chosen to the Presidential office. He was the first man of his kind to reach the chief magistracy of the Union; but he was more than a military hero. He possessed great native powers and inflexible honesty. His talents were strong, but unpolished, unadorned. His personal integrity was unassailable and his will like iron. He was a man of ferocity, but of the strictest regard for that kind of honor which was in his age uppermost in the esteem of the multitudes. He was one of those men for whom no toils are too arduous, no responsibilities too great. His personal character became strongly impressed upon the administration. Believing that public affairs would be best conducted by such means, he removed nearly seven hundred office-holders and appointed in their stead his own political friends. In defence of this course he was able to cite the precedent established by Jefferson and promoted to a certain extent under all the subsequent administrations.

The accession of Jackson to the Presidency was in the nature of a revolution, not only political, but social. The tone of the administration was suddenly and greatly changed. Hitherto all the Presidents had been men of accomplishments. They had been gentlemen, educated and experienced in public affairs. They knew something of public policies and were civilians, as well as—in some cases—military leaders. Coarseness and vulgarity during the first five Presidencies had been unknown in the government. With the rise of Jackson, however, the underside of American life came to the surface. The debonair and stylish demeanor which had marked the manners and methods of the former chief magistrates disappeared from the Presidential mansion and measurably from the other departments of government. Jackson made no pretensions to culture or refinement and many of the coarse and ferocious elements of his former life obtruded themselves in the high places of power. It would be very erroneous to say that all dignity was wanting in the administration. On the contrary there was much that was dignified, more that was respectable; but the accession of Jackson was on the whole derogatory to the refinement and culture and propriety which had previously prevailed about the Presidential mansion.

ISSUES OF JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The question of rechartering the Bank of the United States now came prominently before the country. It was a question with which the government had to deal. The President took strong grounds against issuing a new charter for that institution. He believed the bank to be both inexpedient and unconstitutional. He recommended that the charter should be allowed to expire by limitation in 1836. It could not be expected, however, that a concern so strong and far-reaching in its influence would yield without a struggle. The controversy with respect to the bank was precipitated by the President at an earlier date than was natural to the situation. In 1832 a bill was passed by Congress to recharter the bank; but the President interposed his veto, and since a two-thirds majority could not be commanded for the measure the proposition for a new charter failed and the Bank of the United States ceased to exist.

We have already remarked upon the new political alignment which was at this time effected. The people became divided into the two great factions of Whig and Democrat. The old Federal party had lost control of national affairs with the retracy of the elder

Adams. The party, however, continued in the field until after the war of 1812, when its alleged connection and responsibility for the Hartford Convention gave it a final quietus. Federalists, so-called, still remained in public and private life as late as the times of the great debates on slavery in 1820-21; but after that epoch they disappeared. Meanwhile the anti-Federalists had been metamorphosed, first into Republicans and afterwards into Democrats. The latter name held fast from the time of Jefferson's administration. With John Quincy Adams the name of Whig was introduced, and under the leadership of Clay and Webster the party bearing that name became organic, powerful and well fortified in the principles and policies which it advocated and sought to establish in the government of the country.

Now it was that the tariff question, inherited from the preceding administration, was revived with great force and excitement. In the Congress of 1831-32 the passage of a bill had been secured laying additional duties on manufactured goods imported from abroad. By this measure the manufacturing districts of the United States were again favored at the expense of the agricultural districts. The act was especially offensive to South Carolina. In that commonwealth the excitement rose to a great height; a convention of the people was called, and it was resolved that the tariff law of Congress was unconstitutional, and therefore null and void. The declaration ended with a threat of resistance should an attempt be made to collect the revenues in the harbor of Charleston. One division of the Democratic statesmen took up the cause of South Carolina, and supported what was called her doctrine of nullification.

This doctrine was advocated even to practical secession. It was boldly proclaimed in the United States Senate. On that issue occurred the most famous debate ever heard in the halls of Congress, namely, that between the eloquent Colonel Robert Young Hayne, Senator from South Carolina, and Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, perhaps the greatest master of American oratory. The former spoke as the champion of the so-called doctrine of State rights, including as its practical application the right of nullification and secession under the Constitution; the latter as the advocate of the Constitutional supremacy of Congress over all the Union.

THREATENED SECESSION OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

History, however, had reserved another force than that of Congressional debate for the decision of the question. The President took the matter in hand, and issued a proclamation denying the right of any State to nullify the laws of Congress. It was at this juncture that Mr. Calhoun, the Vice-President, resigned his office, to accept a seat in the Senate, where he might better support the doctrines and purposes of his State. The President solemnly warned the people of South Carolina against the consequences of pushing further the doctrine of nullification. He then ordered General Scott to proceed with a body of troops to Charleston, and also sent thither a man-of-war. Before this display of force the leaders of the nullifying party quailed, and the fatal event of secession was postponed for thirty years. The excitement and discontent of the people of Carolina were presently allayed by a compromise proposed by Henry Clay. A bill was passed, under his strong advocacy, providing for the gradual reduction of the duties complained of, until at the end of ten years they should reach a standard which would be satisfactory to the South.

While the attention of the government was thus occupied with the dangerous and far-reaching question of the right of a State under the Constitution to nullify an act of Congress an Indian war broke out on the western frontier. The Sacs, Foxes and Winnebagos, of Wisconsin Territory, became hostile and took up arms in defence of what they conceived

to be their rights as a nation. They went into the field under the leadership and instigation of their great chief, Black Hawk. Like Tecumtha and many other sachems who had risen to influence during the last century, Black Hawk dreamed of the possibility of uniting all the Indian nations into a confederacy against the whites. The lands of the Sacs and Foxes lay in what is known as the Rock River country of Illinois. While Jefferson was still President these lands had been purchased by the government from the chiefs of the tribes, but the Indian population had never removed from the ceded territory.

At length immigration carried the white settlements into proximity with the Indian country, and the natives were required to give possession. A new race of warriors had now arisen, however, who did not understand or recognize the force of a co-compact made by their fathers. They said that their fathers might quit-claim the national domain, but could not alienate the rights of their descendants. The government insisted on the fulfilment of the treaty according to the principle of warranty and fee simple. The Indians would not recede from their position, and war broke out.

At the outset the militia of Illinois was called into the field. General Scott was sent with nine companies of artillery to make his headquarters on the site of Chicago. His forces, however, were overtaken with the cholera, which now for the first time made its appearance in the United States. Scott was unable to coöperate with General Atkinson, and the latter was obliged to make the campaign against the Indians with an army of volunteers; but he succeeded in defeating them in several actions and Black Hawk was taken prisoner. He was conveyed to Washington and other Eastern cities, where his understanding was opened to the power of the great nation against which he had been foolish enough to lift the hatchet. Being set at liberty, he returned to his own country and advised his people to make no further war. His influence prevailed, and the Indians soon afterwards abandoning the disputed lands removed into Iowa. These events belonged to the years 1832-33.

WAR WITH THE CHEROKEES AND CREEKS.

Difficulties next arose with the Cherokees of Georgia. These people had risen to the civilized life, and were perhaps the most humane of all the Indian races. They had adopted many of the manners and customs of the whites. Farms had been opened, towns built, schools established, printing presses set up, and a code of laws prepared in the civilized manner. It will be remembered that the government of the United States had given a pledge to Georgia to extinguish the title of the Indian lands within her borders—this in compensation for her cession to the government of the territory of Mississippi. The pledge on the part of the United States was not fulfilled; and the Legislature of Georgia, weary of the delay in the removal of the Indians, passed a law abrogating the Indian governments within the limits of the State, and extending the laws of that commonwealth over all the Indian domains.

Vainly did the natives seek to resist this iniquitous legislation. The Cherokees and the Creeks sought the privilege of using the State courts in the attempt to maintain their rights; but such privilege was denied and the petitioners were outlawed. The Supreme Court of the United States, however, refused to ratify the acts of Georgia, declaring the same to be unconstitutional. The Indians appealed to the President, but he refused to interfere. On the contrary, he recommended that the Cherokees be removed to new lands beyond the Mississippi. Such was the contingency which led in the year 1834 to the organization of the Indian Territory as a sort of reservation for the broken tribes. With great reluctance the Cherokees yielded to the necessity of removal. Though they had been

paid more than five million dollars for their homes, they clung to the land of their fathers. Only when General Scott was directed to remove them by force did they yield to the inevitable and take up their march for their new homes in the West. A third conflict now came on with the Seminoles of Florida. The difficulty in this case was much more serious and resulted in a bloody war. The question involved was the right of the government to remove the Seminole nation to a new domain beyond the Mississippi. This measure the Indians resisted. In 1835 hostilities broke out and continued with little interruption for about four years. The chief of the Seminoles was the famous Osceola, a half-breed of great talents, warlike ambitions and audacity. He, together with Micanopy, another chieftain of the nation, declared that the treaty by which the Seminole lands had been ceded to the government was invalid; that the fathers could only quit-claim their own rights and could not alienate the rights of their descendants.

At first these protests were made openly and peaceably to the agents of the government; but General Thompson, who represented the United States, offended at the haughty bearing of Osceola, ordered his arrest and put him in irons. While thus confined the chieftain, dissembling his purpose, gave his assent to the old treaty and was set free. As might have been foreseen, however, he immediately in revenge formed a conspiracy against the whites.

DEATH OF GENERAL THOMPSON.

In anticipation of difficulties, the government had sent General Clinch to Fort Drane, in the interior of Florida. The Indians gathered in the same vicinity in such numbers as to threaten the post. Major Dade, commandant of a station at the head of Tampa Bay, set



DEATH OF GENERAL THOMPSON.

out with a hundred and seventeen men to the support of Clinch. For this force the Indians lay in ambush, fell upon them, and slaughtered them all except one man. On the same day Osceola made a sudden attack upon the quarters of General Thompson, only fifty yards distant from the garrison, and killed and scalped the General and his nine companions. General Clinch issued from Fort Drane, and on the 31st of December fought a hard battle with the Indians

and repulsed them on the Withlacootie. The whites, however, were obliged to fall back again to Fort Drane.

Several divisions of soldiers, one under General Scott and another under General Gaines, now advanced for the relief of Clinch. Gaines met the Indians on the same battlefield where Clinch had fought, and in February of 1835 again repulsed the savages with severe losses. At this time the remnants of the Creeks were obliged to quit the country and repair to their reservation beyond the Mississippi.

The Seminoles, however, held out, occupying the woods and low marsh-lands of Florida until October of 1836, when Governor Call, of that State, marched against them with a force of two thousand men. A battle was fought in the Wahoo Swamp and the Indians were again defeated with heavy losses. They retreated for a while into the Everglades, but later in the season came forth and fought another severe battle on nearly the same ground. In this instance they were again defeated, but not decisively, and the war was transmitted to the next administration.

We may here recount the final struggle of the President with the Bank of the United States. After vetoing the recharter of that institution he had determined to prosecute his hostility by ordering that the surplus funds which had accumulated in the vaults of the bank should be distributed among the States. He had no warrant of law for such a course, but believing himself to be in the right he acted after his manner and took the responsibility. Accordingly, in October of 1833, he gave orders that the accumulated surplus funds of the great bank, amounting to fully ten million dollars, should be distributed among certain State banks which he designated. His idea was that the accumulation of so large an amount of capital at the seat of government, and in an institution having a quasi relation therewith was dangerous to the freedom of Congressional and executive action—a menace to government and a source of corruption.

The high-handed measure of the President evoked the most violent opposition. The Whigs denounced the removal of the funds as unwarranted, arbitrary, dangerous and of incalculable mischief. A coalition was formed in the Senate under the leadership of Calhoun, Clay and Webster, and the President's distributing officers—nominated by him for the removal of the funds—were rejected. A measure of censure was passed in the Senate against him; but the proposition failed in the House of Representatives. Such was the outcry throughout the country that the administration appeared for a season to be almost engulfed.

Such storms as these, however, brought out the strength of the Jacksonian character. The President was as fearless as he was self-willed and stubborn. He held on his course unmoved by the clamor. The resolution of censure stood on the journal of the Senate for four years, and was then not only repealed but *expunged* from the record through the influence of Senator Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri.

FINANCIAL PANIC, AND TROUBLE WITH FRANCE.

The distribution of the surplus funds to the designated State banks was now effected. This work was followed in 1836–37 by a second and most serious financial panic. Whether the removal of the funds and the panic stood to each other in the relation of cause and effect was the great political contention of the day. The Whigs charged that the arbitrary measures of the President, by disturbing the finances of the country had precipitated the crisis, while the Democrats answered that the Bank of the United States with its multiform abuses, was itself the cause of the financial distress. It was urged by the latter party that such an institution was too mercenary, too powerful, too despotic to exist in a free government. The President himself was little concerned with the wrangling over this question; for he had but recently been reelected for a second term with Martin Van Buren of New York for Vice-President, instead of Mr. Calhoun.

Before the Presidential election of 1830, however, the strong will of Jackson was exhibited in full force in a complication with France. During the Napoleonic wars American commerce had suffered much through the recklessness of French sea-captains. Certain claims had thus arisen and were held by the American government against the

French kingdom. The question of a settlement had been agitated many times. In 1831 Louis Phillippe, the new King of France had agreed to the payment of five millions of dollars indemnity for the injuries done aforetime by French cruisers to American commerce. The authorities of the kingdom, however, were dilatory in making payment. The matter was procrastinated until the wrath of the American President broke out in a message which he sent to Congress recommending that reprisals be made on the commerce of France. He also directed the American minister at Paris to demand his passports and come home. These measures had the desired effect, and the indemnity was promptly paid. The government of Portugal, which had sinned in like manner against American commerce, was brought to terms with similar measures.

The remaining statesmen and leaders of the Revolutionary epoch now rapidly passed away. On the 4th of July, 1831, ex-President James Monroe died in New York city. He, like Adams and Jefferson, expired amid the rejoicings of the national anniversary. In the following year Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence passed away at the age of ninety-six. Soon afterwards Philip Freneau, who had gained the distinction and name of the Poet of the Revolution, departed from the land of the living. The bard had reached the good age of eighty. On the 24th of June, 1833, John Randolph, of Roanoke, died in Philadelphia. He was a man who, though eccentric in character, was admired for his talents and respected for his integrity, as well as dreaded for his wit and sarcasm. In 1835 Chief Justice Marshall expired, at the age of four score years, and in the next year ex-President Madison worn with the toils of eighty-five years, passed away. It will be noted by the reader that most of the strong men of the Revolutionary epoch, with the distinguished exception of the Father of his Country, lived to extreme old age.

Disasters to property may be added to the losses of life during this epoch. On the 16th of December, 1835, a fire broke out in the lower part of New York city and the buildings covering thirty acres of ground were laid in ashes. Five hundred and twenty-nine houses and property valued at eighteen million dollars were consumed. Just one year afterward the Patent Office and Post Office at Washington City were destroyed in the same manner. On the ruins of these valuable buildings more noble and imposing structures—which are likely to outlast the century—were soon erected.

JACKSON'S FAREWELL.

Other States were now added to the Union. In June of 1836, Arkansas with her fifty-two thousand square miles and population of seventy thousand, was admitted. In January of the following year Michigan Territory was organized as a State and added to the Union. The new commonwealth brought a population of a hundred and fifty-seven thousand and an area of fifty-six thousand square miles.

As Jackson's second administration drew to a close that stern, rough patriot followed the example of Washington in issuing a farewell address. The document was characterized by the severe justice and something of the intolerant spirit which had marked the man in his administration. The danger of discord and sectionalism among the States was set forth with all the masculine energy of the Jacksonian dialect. It should be said of the epoch and in its favor that it was a time in which the President was still President, and when the sleek effusions of private-secretaries and chairmen of executive committees were not in vogue. Jackson solemnly warned the people of the United States, as Washington had done, against the baneful influence of demagogues; the horrors of disunion were por-

trayed in the strongest colors and the people of every rank and section were exhorted to maintain and defend the American Union as they would the last fortress of human liberty. Such was the last public paper contributed by Andrew Jackson to the political literature of the age. The presidential election of 1836 resulted in the choice of Martin Van Buren, of New York, the candidate of the Democratic party. The opposing standard-bearer was General William H. Harrison, of Ohio, who received the support of the new Whig party. As to the Vice-Presidency no one secured a majority in the electoral college, and the choice was devolved on the Senate. By that body Colonel Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, was duly elected.

Martin Van Buren was born at Kinderhook, New York, December 5th, 1782. His education was limited. He studied law and became a politician. In his thirtieth year he was elected to the Senate of his native State and six years afterwards, taking advantage of the anti-Masonic excitement, he succeeded in supplanting De Witt Clinton as the leader of the Democratic party in New York. In 1821, and again in 1827, he was chosen Senator of the United States; but in the first year of his second term he resigned the office to accept the governorship of his native State. Under Jackson he received the appointment of Secretary of State, but soon resigned that place to become minister plenipotentiary to England. The President appointed him to the latter position, but when the appointment came before the Senate, Vice-President Calhoun, assisted by the Whig leaders Clay and Webster, succeeded in rejecting the nomination. Van Buren, who had been appointed during a recess of the Senate, returned from his unfulfilled mission, became the candidate for the Vice-Presidency in 1832 and was elected. Four years later he led the powerful party to which he belonged and succeeded General Jackson in the Presidency.

BLOODY BATTLE WITH THE SEMINOLES.

As already said, the Seminole war was carried over as an unfinished task to the administration of Van Buren. The command of the southern army was transferred in 1837 from General Scott to General Jessup. Osceola had by this time perceived the final hopelessness of his cause. His revenge had been gratified by the destruction of General Thompson. The chief, taking advantage of the laws of war, came under a flag of truce to the American camp, but being suspected of treachery was seized by the authorities and sent a prisoner to Fort Moultrie, where he languished for a year and died.

The Seminoles, though disheartened by the loss of their chieftain, continued the war. In December of 1838, Colonel Zachary Taylor, with a force of over a thousand men, penetrated the Everglades of Florida, and routed the savages from their lairs. After unparalleled sufferings he overtook the main body of the Seminoles on Christmas day, near Lake Okeechobee. Here a hard battle was fought, and the Indians were defeated, but not until they had inflicted a loss on the whites of a hundred and thirty-nine men. For more than a year Taylor continued his expeditions into the swamps. The spirit of the Indians was finally broken, and in 1839 the chiefs sent in their submission. They signed an additional treaty; but even after this their removal to the West was made with much reluctance.

FINANCIAL CRISIS OF 1837.

We have already referred to the financial crisis of 1837. There had been a preceding brief interim of great prosperity. The national debt had been entirely liquidated. A surplus of nearly forty million dollars had accumulated in the treasury of the United States. We have already seen how President Jackson, by arbitrary measures, succeeded in distributing the accumulations in the Bank of the United States among the several States. By this measure money became suddenly abundant and speculations of all sorts grew rife.

- The credit system sprang up and prevailed more and more in all departments of business. The banks of the country were multiplied to nearly seven hundred, and vast issues of irredeemable paper money were made, as if to increase the opportunities for fraud.

These circumstances and the rapid increase of population in the West produced a great demand for homesteads, and the public lands were rapidly taken up. The paper money of the multiplied local banks was receivable at the various land-offices, and speculators as well as actual settlers made a rush, with a plentiful supply of bills, to secure the best lands. General Jackson, at that time President, perceiving that an unsound currency received in exchange for the national domain was likely to defraud the government out of millions of dollars, issued his so-called Specie Circular, in which he directed the land agents to receive henceforth *nothing but coin* in payment for the public lands.

The effect of this measure fell upon the country at the beginning of Van Buren's administration. The interests of the government had undoubtedly been secured; but the business of the country was prostrated by the shock. The banks suspended specie payments. Mercantile houses tottered and fell. Disaster spread through every avenue of trade. Within two months after the accession of Van Buren the failures in New York and New Orleans amounted to nearly one hundred and fifty million dollars. A committee of the business men of the former city besought the President to rescind the Specie Circular and to call a special session of Congress. The former request was refused and the latter complied with, but not until the disasters of the country, rather than the clamors of an interested committee, had moved the executive to action.

THE INDEPENDENT TREASURY BILL.

When Congress convened in September, 1837, many measures of relief were proposed. As a temporary expedient a bill was passed for the issuance of treasury notes, not to exceed an aggregate of ten million dollars. The President's plan of relief was embodied in the measure which is known in Congressional history as the Independent Treasury Bill. The act provided that the public funds of the nation should be kept on deposit in a treasury to be established for that special purpose. It was argued in support of the scheme that the surplus money—the excessive circulation of the country—would in the processes of trade and revenue drift into the independent treasury, and lodge there, and that by this expedient the speculative mania would be effectually checked and prevented. It was believed, not without good grounds in reason and experience, that extensive speculations could not be carried on without a redundant currency. The philosophical basis of the President's plan was the notion of a *separation* between the business of the government and the general business of the country.

The strength of the administration was sufficient to secure the passage of the Independent Treasury Bill by the Senate, but not sufficient to overcome the opposition to the measure in the House of Representatives. At the ensuing regular session of Congress, however, the bill was a second time brought forward and passed. By this time the shock of the commercial panic had subsided; public confidence had been restored, and business measurably revived. During the year 1838 most of the banks were able to resume specie payment. Commerce flowed back into its usual channels. The current, however, was sluggish, and for some time a half-paralysis rested on the trade of the country. Many enterprises of public and private moment were checked or defeated. Merchants and traders adopted a timid and conservative policy; discontent prevailed among the people, and the administration was blamed with everything.

THREATENING COMPLICATION WITH CANADA.

The reader will not have forgotten the policy established by Washington of total non-interference with the affairs of foreign nations. The American theory, which was strictly adhered to during the first half-century of our national existence, was that of no complication or entanglement with any foreign power. The year 1837 was marked by an event which seemed for a season to disturb and render complex the relations between the United States and Canada. Even at that early day a part of the people of the Canadian provinces had become dissatisfied with British rule, and an insurrection broke out having for its ultimate purpose the establishment of independence.

Along the northern frontier of the United States a certain sympathy was excited for the rebels across the border. The insurgents received some encouragement and aid from the people of northern New York. A body of seven hundred men arose in that State, took up arms, seized and fortified Navy Island, in the Niagara river. The loyalists of Canada—they who remained in allegiance to the British crown and who constituted the great majority—made an attack on the Americans on the island, but failed to capture the place. They succeeded, however, in gaining possession of the *Caroline*, the supply-ship of the adventurers, and setting the vessel on fire cut her moorings and sent her over Niagara Falls, a spectacle to men!

These events created much excitement in both Canada and the United States. It seemed indeed for a season that the peace of our country and Great Britain was in danger of rupture. The President, however, took the matter up and issued a proclamation of neutrality, in which the action of the American insurgents was disavowed. The people were warned against any further interference with the affairs of Canada. General Wool was sent to the Niagara frontier with a sufficient force to quell the disturbance so far as the Americans were concerned and to punish those who had broken the peace. The New York insurgents on Navy Island were obliged to surrender and order was presently restored.

Perhaps this international pass with Canada was the most exciting event of Van Buren's administration. For the rest the period was regarded as commonplace. In the absence of real questions about which the people might concern themselves the politicians were left to create factitious issues to supply the material of popular agitation. With the coming of 1840 the question as to Van Buren's successor was raised; the candidates were soon in the field and the canvass was undertaken in a spirit of partisan bitterness. The measures of the administration, no less than the condition of the country, had been of a kind to provoke the sharpest political antagonisms. The Whigs were now animated with the hope of capturing the government. Almost a year before the Presidential election they sent General William H. Harrison into the field as their standard-bearer in the contest. On the Democratic side Van Buren was named for reëlection. He had at this juncture no formidable competitor for the leadership of his party; but the unanimity of the Democrats could not atone for the blunders and unsucccess, not to say the misfortunes, of the current administration.

It is a strange and lamentable circumstance in the history of our country that in times of peace the animosities which prevail in times of war find vent in the excitements and passions of political battle.

ELECTION OF HARRISON.

This was true in particular of the election of 1840. The Whigs made the attack with great vehemence. Van Buren was blamed with everything. The financial distresses of the country were laid at his door. Extravagance, bribery and corruption were charged

against him. Men of business already associated for the most part with the political opinions of the Whigs advertised to pay six dollars a barrel for flour if Harrison should be elected; three dollars a barrel if Van Buren should be successful. The opposition orators tossed about the luckless administration through all the figures and forms of speech and the President himself was shot at with every sort of dart that partisan wit and malice could invent. The enthusiasm in the ranks of the Whigs rose higher and higher and Van Buren was overwhelmingly defeated. The result showed two hundred and thirty-four electoral votes for General Harrison and only sixty for his opponent. After controlling the destinies of the government without a break for thirty-six years the Democratic party was temporarily routed. For Vice-President John Tyler, of Virginia, was the successful candidate.

Now was completed the sixth census of the United States. The results were replete with the evidences of national growth and progress. The revenues of the nation for 1840 amounted to nearly twenty millions of dollars. At this time that important statistical information for which the subsequent reports have been noted began to appear in its full value. The centre of population had in the last ten years moved westward along the thirty-ninth parallel of latitude from the south fork of the Potomac to Clarksburg in the present State of West Virginia, a distance of fifty-five miles. The inhabited area of the United States now amounted to eight hundred and seven thousand square miles, being an increase since 1830 of twenty-seven and six-tenths per cent. The frontier line circumscribing the population passed through Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa and the western borders of Missouri, Arkansas and Louisiana, a distance of three thousand three hundred miles. The population had reached an aggregate of seventeen million souls, being an increase since 1830 of more than six millions. It was found from the tables that eleven-twelfths of the people lived outside of the larger cities and towns, showing a strong preponderance of the agricultural over the manufacturing and commercial interests. One of the most cheering lessons of the census was found in the fact that the wonderful growth of the United States was in *extent* and *area* and not in accumulation—in the *spread* of civilization rather than in an increase in *intensity*; for during the last decade the average of the population of the country had not increased by so much as one person to the square mile.

The common judgment has been that the administration of Van Buren was weak and inglorious. It appears to have been characterized by few important episodes and to have been controlled by principles some of which were bad. But the President and his times together were unfortunate rather than vicious. He was the victim of the evils which followed hard upon the relaxation of the Jacksonian methods of government. That kind of government could not long be maintained in the United States. The four years of Van Buren's administration were the ebb tide between the belligerent excitements of 1832 and the war with Mexico. The financial panic added opprobrium to the popular estimate of the imbecility of the government. "The administration of Van Buren," said a bitter satirist, "is like a parenthesis; it may be read in a low tone of voice, or altogether omitted without injuring the sense." But the sarcasm was not true—or true only in part.

The new President was by birth a Virginian. He was a son of Benjamin Harrison, signer of the Declaration of Independence; the adopted son of Robert Morris. He was a graduate of Hampden and Sydney College, and afterwards a student of medicine; but the military life drew him from his study and he entered the army of St. Clair. He rose by rapid promotion to be governor of Indiana Territory. His military career in the northwest has been already narrated. He was inaugurated President on the 4th of March, 1841, and began his duties by issuing a call for a special session of Congress, to consider "sundry

important matters connected with the finances of the country." An able cabinet was organized, with Daniel Webster at the head as Secretary of State.

DEATH OF HARRISON AND ACCESSION OF TYLER.

At the outset everything seemed to promise well for the new Whig administration ; but before Congress could convene the venerable President, already sixty-eight years of age, sickened and died just one month after his inauguration. It was the first time that such an event had occurred in American history. Profound and universal grief was manifested over the death of the chief magistrate.

On the 6th of April, 1841, John Tyler took the oath of office and became President of the United States. He was a statesman of considerable distinction, a native of Virginia, a graduate of William and Mary. At first a lawyer, he soon left his profession to become a politician. He was chosen a member of Congress and in 1825 was elected governor of Virginia. From that position he was sent to the Senate of the United States and now at the age of fifty-one was called to the Presidency. He had been put upon the ticket with General Harrison through motives of expediency ; for although a Whig in most of his political principles, he was known to be *hostile to the Bank of the United States*. This hostility was soon to be manifested in a remarkable manner.

The Whig Congress convened in the highest spirits. One of the first measures proposed at the session, which lasted from May to September, was the repeal of the Independent Treasury Bill. A general Bankrupt law was passed by which a great number of insolvent business men were released from the disabilities under which they had fallen in the financial panic. The next measure was the proposition to recharter the Bank of the United States. The old charter had expired five years previously ; but the bank had continued in operation under a charter granted by the State of Pennsylvania. A bill to rehabilitate the institution in its national character was now brought forward and passed ; but the President interposed his veto. A second time the bill was presented in a modified form and received the sanction of both Houses, only to be rejected by the executive. This action produced a fatal rupture between the President and his party. The indignant Whigs, unable to command a two-thirds' majority in Congress, turned upon him with storms of invective. All the members of the Cabinet except Mr. Webster resigned their seats ; and that statesman retained his place only because of a pending difficulty with Great Britain.

A contention had arisen with that country relative to the northeastern boundary of the United States. Our territorial limit in that direction had not been clearly defined by the treaty of 1783. The commissioners at Ghent in 1814 had contributed little to the solution of the difficulty. That polite and easily satisfied convention had postponed the question rather than settled it. It was agreed, however, to refer the establishment of the entire line between the United States and Canada to the decision of three commissions which were to be appointed by the respective governments. The first of these three bodies awarded to the United States the islands in the Bay of Passamaquoddy. The third commission performed its duty by fixing the international line from the intersection of the forty-fifth parallel of latitude with the river St. Lawrence to the western point of Lake Huron. To the second commission was assigned the more difficult task of settling the boundary from the Atlantic to the St. Lawrence. This work they failed to accomplish.

THE WEBSTER-ASHBURTON TREATY.

For nearly a quarter of a century the boundary of the United States on the northeast remained in uncertainty. At times the difficulty assumed a serious aspect. At last the whole question was referred to Lord Ashburton, acting on the part of Great Britain, and

Daniel Webster, the American Secretary of State. The discussion of the question was as able as the matter involved was intricate. Finally, however, a satisfactory solution was reached; and the international boundary was established as follows: From the mouth of the river St. Croix, ascending that stream to its westernmost fountain; from that fountain due north to the St. John's; thence with that river to its source on the watershed between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence; thence in a southwesternly direction along the crest of the highlands to the northwestern source of the river Connecticut; thence down that stream to the forty-fifth parallel of latitude, and thence with that parallel to the St. Lawrence.

By a second agreement of the commissioners the boundary was established from the western point of Lake Huron through Lake Superior to the northwestern extremity of the Lake of the Woods; thence—confirming the treaty of October, 1818—southward to the forty-ninth parallel of latitude, and thence with that parallel to the Rocky Mountains. This important settlement, known as the Webster-Ashburton treaty, was completed on the 9th of August, 1842, and was ratified by the Senate on the 20th of the same month.

The following year was marked by a peculiar domestic trouble in Rhode Island. For nearly two centuries the government of that commonwealth had rested upon the old charter granted by Charles II. There had always been in Rhode Island a certain residue of loyalism unfavorable to republican institutions. The ancient charter contained a clause restricting the right of suffrage to property-holders of a certain grade. The spirit of modern democracy fretted against this restriction, and an attempt was made to remove it from the Constitution of the State.

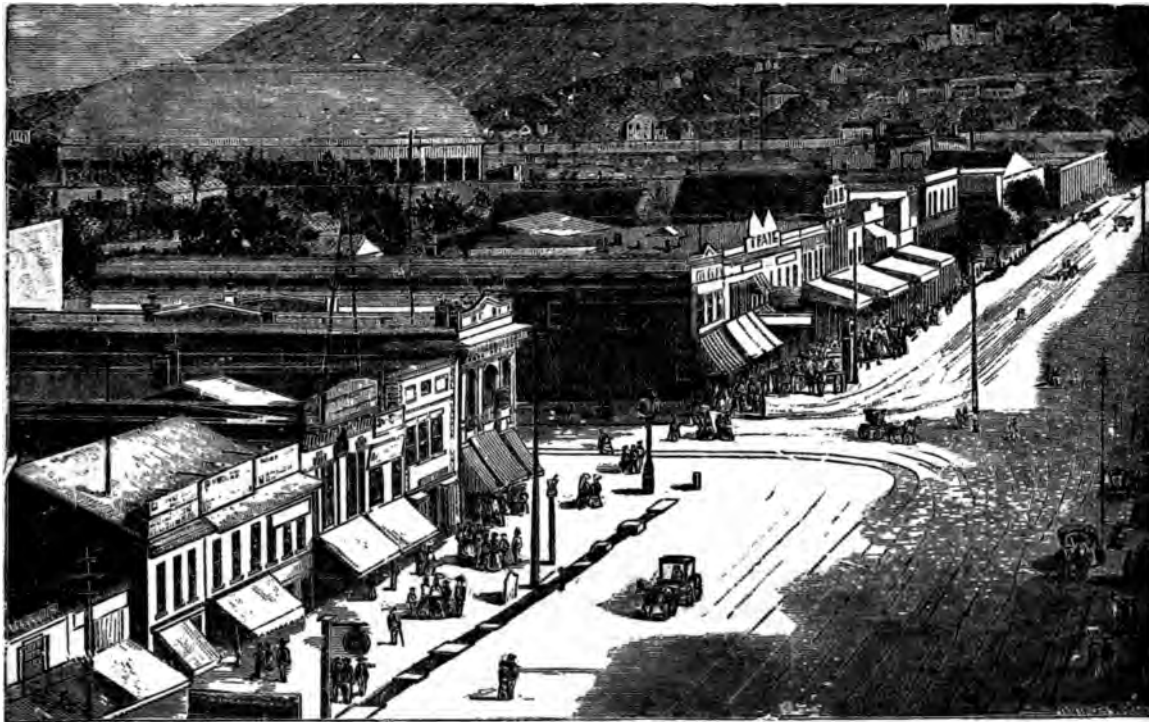
On this question the people were almost unanimous, but the *manner* of effecting the change was violently debated. One faction calling itself the Law and Order party, and proceeding under the old Constitution, chose Samuel W. King as governor. The other faction, known as the Suffrage party, acting in an irregular way, elected Thomas W. Dorr. In May of 1842 both parties proceeded to organize their rival governments. The Law and Order party undertook to suppress the Suffragists and the latter attempted to capture the State arsenal. Defeated in this purpose, they took arms a second time, until they were dispersed by a detachment of soldiers sent to Rhode Island by the general government. Dorr fled from the State, but returning soon afterwards was caught, tried for treason, convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for life. He was offered pardon on condition of taking the oath of allegiance, but he stubbornly refused and was confined until June of 1845, when he was liberated without conditions.

DEDICATION OF BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

In 1842 was completed the Bunker Hill monument. The event called forth great enthusiasm, not only in Boston, but throughout the country. The foundation of the great shaft had been laid on the 17th of June, 1825, the corner-stone being put into place by the venerable Lafayette. Daniel Webster, then young in years and fame, delivered the oration, while two hundred Revolutionary veterans—forty of them survivors of the battle fought on that hill-crest just fifty years before—gathered with the throng to hear him. The work of erection went on slowly. Seventeen years elapsed before the shaft was finished. The column was of Quincy granite, thirty-one feet square at the base and two hundred and twenty-one feet in height. The dedication was postponed until the next succeeding anniversary of the battle. On the 17th of June, 1843, an immense multitude, including most of the survivors of the Revolution, gathered from all parts of the country to participate in the ceremonies. Webster, now full of years and honors, delivered the dedicatory oration,

one of the most able and eloquent ever pronounced in ancient or modern times. The exercises were concluded with a public dinner in Faneuil Hall, the cradle of American liberty.

During the last years of Tyler's administration the State of New York was seriously disturbed by a dispute concerning the land titles in that part of the country once held by the Dutch patrons. Until the year 1840 the descendants of Van Rensselaer had held claims on certain lands in the counties of Rensselaer, Columbia and Delaware. In consideration of these claims they had continued to receive from the farmers owning the lands certain trifling rents, but the payment of these rents at length became annoying to the farmers and they rebelled against the Van Rensselaer claims. The question was in the Legislature of New York from 1840 to 1844. By the latter date the anti-rent party had become so strong as to prevent the payment of the quit-rents, even by those who were willing to make them. The paying renters were coated with tar and feathers and driven from the settlements.



VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY.

Officers were sent to apprehend the rioters and them they killed. Time and again the authorities of the State were invoked to quell the disturbances, and it was a long time before the excitement subsided. To the present day, indeed, there never has been any formal adjustment of the difficulty.

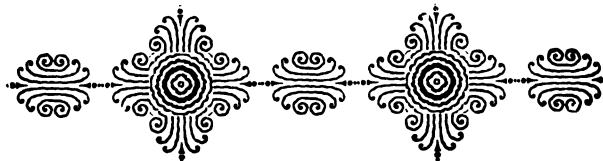
RISE OF THE MORMONS.

To this period in our country's history belongs the rise of the Mormons. This sect, under the leadership of their prophet, Joseph Smith, made their first important settlements in Jackson county, Missouri. Here their numbers increased to fifteen hundred. They were a peaceable people, and others flocked to the community. Elated with their success, the Mormons began to say that the Great West was destined to be their inheritance. The anti-

Mormon population round about became excited, and determined to rid themselves of their prosperous neighbors. The militia was called out and the Mormons were driven from the State. In the spring of 1839 they crossed the Mississippi into Illinois, and on a high plateau overlooking the river laid out a new city, to which they gave the name of Nauvoo, meaning *The Beautiful*. Here they proceeded to build a splendid temple, for the ideas of the community were those of antiquity and the Orient. There was to be a governing priesthood, and the Mormon people, like ancient Israel, were to have their life-centre in the temple.

The Latter Day Saints—for by that name the Mormons would be called—rapidly increased. Immigrants and converts came from many parts of the United States and from Europe. The settlement soon reached a population of ten thousand. This extraordinary growth and the peculiar manners and doctrines of the Saints roused the hatred of the people round about, who in abilities, refinement and culture were by no means the equals of the Mormons. There were soon two parties. Some of the laws enacted by Smith's followers were contrary to the statute of Illinois. The Mormons were charged with certain thefts and murders and it was said that the courts about Nauvoo were powerless to administer justice in the case of these criminals.

As the excitement rose, Smith and his brother Hiram were arrested, taken to Carthage and put in jail. On the 27th of June, 1844, a mob gathered, broke open the jail doors and killed the prisoners. Other hostilities followed during the summer. In 1845 the State Legislature annulled the charter of Nauvoo, and the Mormons were left at the mercy of their enemies. At length they despaired of keeping their place in Illinois and a great majority determined to exile themselves beyond the limits of civilization. They made their preparations for an exodus, and in 1846 began their march to the far-off, unknown West. In September Nauvoo was cannonaded for three days and the remnant of the Saints were driven forth to join their companions in exile. The second band came up with the main company at Councils Bluffs, Iowa. Thence the great march was begun across the illimitable prairies and the Rocky Mountains. The Mormons reached the basin of the Great Salt Lake by way of Marshall's Pass and the Gunnison. There they founded Utah Territory, believing themselves, as indeed they were, beyond the pale of their enemies. Such were the beginnings of that complication which after the lapse of nearly half a century has not yielded either to the force of logic or the logic of force.



CHAPTER XXII.

WAR WITH MEXICO.



have now arrived at the beginnings of the most serious complications in which the United States was involved between the treaty of Ghent and the outbreak of the civil war. The flux of Anglo-American civilization westward brought the vanguard of our American race at length to the borders of Mexico, and with that Hispanio-American power we were now to be involved in a brief but severe conflict for the possession of the imperial territories stretching from Missouri to the Pacific Ocean.

The agitation, upon an account of which we are here to enter, arose respecting the republic of Texas.

That great State, if State it might be called, lying between Louisiana and Mexico had been from 1821 to 1836 a province of the latter republic. It had been the policy of Spain aforetime, while Mexico flourished and the United States grew apace to keep Texas unpeopled; for by this policy it was possible to interpose an impassable barrier between the aggressive American race and the Mexican borders. This method of checking the expansion of the United States on the south-west was taken up by Mexico after the achievement of her independence in 1821, and Texas remained as before; an unpeopled empire.

At length, however, Moses Austin, of Connecticut, obtained a large land-grant on condition that he should establish a colony of three hundred American families within the limits of his Texan domain. This grant was confirmed to his son Stephen Austin, with the enlarged privilege of establishing five hundred families of immigrants. These charters were obtained from the government of Mexico, and between the years of 1820 and 1833 the American settlements in Texas had become so strong and well established as to furnish the nucleus of the Texan rebellion against the government of Mexico. That government had become oppressive, and held in its methods all the vices which have characterized the Spaniards and Spanish-Americans in the attempted establishment of free institutions.

REMEMBER THE ALAMO!

Against such methods the Texans, already enjoying a sort of semi-independence, took up arms in the year 1835 and rallied in a general rebellion. War broke out between the parent State and the revolted province. Hereupon many adventurers and some heroes from the United States came hurrying to the scene of action and espoused the Texan cause. The first battle of the war was fought at Gonzales, and here a Mexican army numbering about a thousand was defeated by a Texan force of half the number. On the 6th of March, 1836, the old Texan fort of the Alamo de Bexar, near San Antonio, was surrounded by the Mexicans, eight thousand strong, under command of Santa Anna, President of Mexico. The garrison, though feeble in numbers, made a heroic defence, but was overpowered and

massacred under circumstances of great atrocity. Here it was that the daring David Crockett, an ex-Congressman of Tennessee and a famous hunter of beasts and men, was killed. In the following month was fought the decisive battle of San Jacinto, in which the small American army, commanded by General Sam Houston, annihilated the host of Santa Anna and achieved the freedom of Texas at a blow. The independence of the new State was acknowledged by the United States, by Great Britain and by France, and Mexico was obliged to yield. Texas became an independent republic and a government was organized on the model of that of the United States.

It soon appeared, however, that the movement for Texan independence had been inspired by the ulterior motive of gaining admission into the American Union. No sooner had the Texans gained their independence than they began to make petition for a place as a State in our republic. The first application of this kind was made during the adminis-



MEETING PLACE OF THE FIRST TEXAN CONGRESS.

tration of Van Buren ; but the President, fearing a war with Mexico, declined to entertain the proposal. For four or five years the question lay dormant, but by no means dead. In the last year of Tyler's administration it sprang up more vital than ever. The population of Texas had by this time reached more than two hundred thousand souls. The Territory had an area of two hundred and thirty-seven square miles, more than five times as great as the State of Pennsylvania! It was like the annexation of an empire.

Immediately the question of annexing Texas to the American Union became political. It was indeed the great question on which the people divided in the Presidential election of 1844. Nor will the thoughtful reader, nearing the close of the century, fail to discern in this old question of annexation the profound problem of slavery. Freedom in the free States had found a vent in the northwest, looking even beyond the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific ; but slavery and the slave States seemed to be hampered on the southwest. Would not Texas open to the "peculiar institution" a field as broad and promising as that possessed by the Northern States? Could not the equipoise between the two parts of the Union be thus maintained?

In these questions and through them we may discover the bottom reason why the people of the South for the most part favored the annexation of Texas and why the proposition was received so coldly in the North. Again, the project was favored by the Democrats and opposed by the Whigs ; so that here we have the beginning of that sectionalism in party politics which has not yet disappeared from the nation.

In the presidential contest of 1844 the two parties were nearly equally matched in strength. For this reason, and for the exciting nature of the issues involved, the contest surpassed in vehemence anything which had hitherto been known in American history. James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was nominated as the Democratic candidate, while the Whigs chose their favorite leader Henry Clay. The former was elected. Though the fame of the

latter and his idolatry by the Whig party were unabated, yet his hope of reaching the Presidency was forever eclipsed. As Vice-President George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was chosen.

FIRST USE OF THE TELEGRAPH.

An incident of another kind belonging to these days is worthy of special note. On the 29th of May, 1844, the news of the nomination of Polk was transmitted from Baltimore to Washington City by the magnetic telegraph. It was the first despatch of such kind ever sent by man, and the event marks an era in the history of civilization. The inventor of the telegraph which was destined to revolutionize the method of the rapid transmission of information and to introduce a new epoch in history, was Professor Samuel F. B. Morse, of Massachusetts. The magnetic principle on which the telegraph depends for its efficiency had been known to scientific men since 1774; but Professor Morse was the first to put the great discovery into the form of invention. He began his experiments in 1832, and wrought at the problem for five years before he obtained his first patent. He had in the meantime to contend with every species of prejudice and ignorance which the low grade of human intelligence could produce. After the issuance of the patent there was a long delay, and it was not until the last days of the Congressional session in 1843 that the inventor succeeded in obtaining an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars. With that appropriation was constructed between Washington and Baltimore the first telegraphic line in the world. Perhaps no other single invention has exercised a wider or more beneficent influence on the welfare, progress and happiness of mankind.

The question of the annexation of Texas would not down. In December of 1844 a formal proposition for the addition of that republic to the Union was made in Congress. Debates followed at intervals during the winter, and on the 1st of March, 1845, the bill of annexation was passed. The President immediately gave his assent, and the Lone Star took its place in the American constellation. On the day before the inauguration of Polk, bills for the admission of Florida and Iowa were signed by Tyler; but the latter State, being the twenty-ninth in number, was not formally admitted until the following year.

James Knox Polk, sixteenth President of the United States, was a native of North Carolina, born November 2d, 1795. At the age of eleven he removed with his father to the new State of Tennessee. In 1818 he was graduated from the University of North Carolina. During his early manhood he was the *protégé* of Andrew Jackson. His first public office was a membership in the legislature of Tennessee. Afterwards he was elected to Congress where he served as Speaker for fourteen years. In 1839 he was chosen governor of Tennessee and from that position was called at the age of forty-nine to the Presidential chair. At the head of the new cabinet as Secretary of State was placed James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania. It was an office requiring high abilities, for the threatening question with Mexico came at once to a crisis.

As soon as the resolution for Texan annexation to the United States was adopted by Congress, Almonte, the Mexican Minister at Washington, demanded his passports and indignantly left the country. The Congressional resolution of annexation was formally approved by the legislature of Texas on the 4th of July, 1845; the union was an accomplished fact. But the Texan authorities knew well that Mexico would go to war rather than accept the extension of the American borders to her frontier line. A deputation was accordingly sent with all haste to the President of the United States requesting that an American army be at once despatched to Texas for the protection of the State. In response to this petition General Zachary Taylor was ordered to march from Camp Jessup in Western Louisiana to occupy Texas.

QUESTIONS WHICH LED TO THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

The real question between that State—now a member of the American Union and supported by the general government—on the one side and Mexico on the other was the question of boundaries. Perhaps the bare fact of annexation would have been borne by Mexico, for she had already assented nearly ten years previously to Texan independence; but her assent to annexation was conditioned upon her right to dictate the boundary line between her own territories and those of Texas.

The issue here presented went back to the date of Mexican independence. In 1821 Mexico had thrown off the authority of Spain and instituted a government of her own. In doing so she had rearranged her provinces. She had united in one the two provinces of Coahuila and Texas. These were the frontier Mexican States east of the Rio Grande. Over this united province she had established a common government and this government was maintained until it was broken by the Texan rebellion of 1836. Texas being successful in her revolt against the parent State, naturally claimed that her own independence so achieved *carried with it the independence of Coahuila* and that therefore the territory of the latter province became by the revolution an integral part of the new Texan republic. These views were held also by the people of Coahuila. The joint legislature of that State and of Texas passed a statute in December of 1836 declaring the integrity of the two States under the common name of Texas. Mexico insisted, however, that Texas only and not Coahuila had revolted against her authority and that the latter State was therefore still rightfully a part of the Mexican dominions.

It thus happened that the new State of Texas, now a member of the American Union, claimed the Rio Grande as her western limit, while Mexico was determined to have the river Nueces for the separating line. The large territory between the two provinces was in dispute. The Government of the United States made a proposal to have the difficulty settled by negotiation, but Mexico scornfully refused. To her the question was clear and needed no arbitration. The refusal was construed by the Americans as a virtual confession that the Mexican government was in the wrong and upon this conviction the claim of the Rio Grande was stoutly maintained by our government. General Taylor was instructed to advance his army as near to that river as circumstances would warrant and to hold his position against aggression. Under these orders the American forces were moved forward to Corpus Christi, at the mouth of the Nueces, where a camp was established and there Taylor gathered an army of four thousand five hundred men. Such was the situation at the end of 1845.

With the opening of the next year a critical step was taken. Taylor was ordered forward to the Rio Grande. It was known that the Mexican government would not receive an American ambassador. It was also learned that a Mexican army was gathering in the northern part of the republic for a counter-invasion of Texas, or at least for the occupation of the disputed territory.

General Taylor obeyed his orders. On the 8th of March, 1846, he advanced from Corpus Christi to Point Isabel on the Gulf of Mexico. There a depot of supplies was established and the march was continued to the Rio Grande. The American army reached that river at a point opposite the town of Matamoras and there erected a fortress named Fort Brown.

BEGINNING OF HOSTILITIES.

This invasion of what had once been the province of Coahuila was regarded by Mexico as an act of war. On the 26th of April General Arista arrived at Matamoras and took com-

mand of the Mexican forces. On the following day Taylor reached the other side of the river. Arista at once notified him that hostilities had begun. On the same day a company of American dragoons commanded by Captain Thornton was attacked by a body of Mexicans who had crossed the Rio Grande into the disputed territory. Here the war began. Sixteen of the American force were killed or wounded and the remainder were obliged to surrender.

On the right bank of the Rio Grande there was now great activity. A Mexican force crossed the river below the American position and threatened Taylor's communications. The American General deemed it expedient to retire to Point Isabel and strengthen his defences. The fort opposite Matamoras, however, was left in charge of Major Brown with a garrison of three hundred men. The Mexicans witnessed the falling back of the American army with great jubilation. The *Republican Monitor*, a Mexican newspaper of Matamoras, published a flaming editorial declaring that the cowardly invaders of Mexico had fled like a gang of poltroons and were using every exertion to get out of the country. General Arista shared this delusion, believing that the Americans had fled away and that his only remaining duty was to cannonade and demolish Fort Brown; this should end the war.

Taylor, however, had little thought of receding before the foe. Having strengthened his position at Point Isabel, he at once set out with his trains and an army of two thousand men to return to Fort Brown. The Mexicans to the number of six thousand had now crossed the Rio Grande and taken position at Palo Alto. This place lay directly in Taylor's way. At noon on the 8th of May the Americans came up and the first general battle of the war was begun. The engagement was severe, lasting five hours. The Mexicans near sunset were driven from the field with the loss of a hundred men. The American artillery inflicted the greater amount of damage. It could but be observed by Taylor that the fighting of the Mexicans was clumsy and ineffective. Only four Americans were killed and forty wounded; but among the former was the gallant Major Ringgold, of the artillery.

The fight of Palo Alto was indecisive. The Mexicans fell back and General Taylor prosecuted his march.



CAPTURE OF THE MEXICAN BATTERY BY CAPTAIN MAY.

When the American army was within three miles of Fort Brown, the Mexicans were again encountered. They had rallied in full force and planted themselves at a place called Resaca de la Palma. Here an old river bed, dry and overgrown with cacti, lay across the road along which the Americans were making their way in the direction of Fort Brown. The Mexican artillery was planted to command the approach. At the first the Americans were galled; but a charge was made by Captain May with his

dragoons; the Mexican batteries were captured and General La Vega taken at the guns. Hereupon the Mexicans flung away their accoutrements and fled. Nor did they pause until they had put the Rio Grande between themselves and their pursuers.

After his battle and victory Taylor continued his march to Fort Brown. He found that that place had been constantly bombarded from Matamoras during his absence. A brave defence had been made and the garrison had held out, but Major Brown, the commandant had fallen. Such were the first passes of the struggle.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE STRUGGLE.

The news of the things done on the Rio Grande carried wild excitement to all parts of the United States. The war spirit flamed out everywhere. Even party dissensions were for a while hushed and Whigs and Democrats alike rushed forward to fill the ranks. The President sent a message to Congress in which he laid the blame of the conflict on the lawless soldiery of Mexico, alleging that they had shed the blood of American soldiers on American soil. Congress promptly responded and on the 11th of May, 1846, declared that "war already existed by the act of the Mexican government." Ten millions of dollars were promptly placed at the disposal of the government and the President was authorized to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers. In all the States war meetings were held and in a short time about three hundred thousand men offered themselves for the service.

Only a small part of this number could be accepted. It remained, indeed, for the regular army of the United States to do most of the fighting in our war with Mexico. Trained officers were sent to the field of operations. General Scott was made commander-in-chief. The American forces were organized in three divisions: the Army of the West, under General Kearney, to cross the Rocky Mountains and conquer the northern Mexican provinces; the Army of the Centre, under General Scott himself, to march from the gulf coast into the heart of the enemy's country, and the Army of Occupation, commanded by General Taylor, to subdue and hold the districts on the Rio Grande.

The duty of mustering in and organizing the volunteer forces was assigned to General Wool. By midsummer of 1846 that officer succeeded in despatching to General Taylor a force of nine thousand men. He then established his headquarters and camp at San Antonio, Texas. From this vantage he sent forward the various divisions of recruits to the field. Meanwhile active operations were resumed on the Rio Grande. Ten days after the battle of Resaca de la Palma General Taylor crossed to the Mexican side and captured Matamoras. He then began to march up the right bank of the river and into the interior. By this time the Mexicans having felt the impact of American mettle grew wary of their antagonists. They fell back to the old town of Monterey, which they fortified and held against Taylor's advance. The latter was not able at this time to leave the Rio Grande on account of the smallness of his forces. He was obliged to remain inactive until August before his army was sufficiently augmented to justify further battle with the enemy.

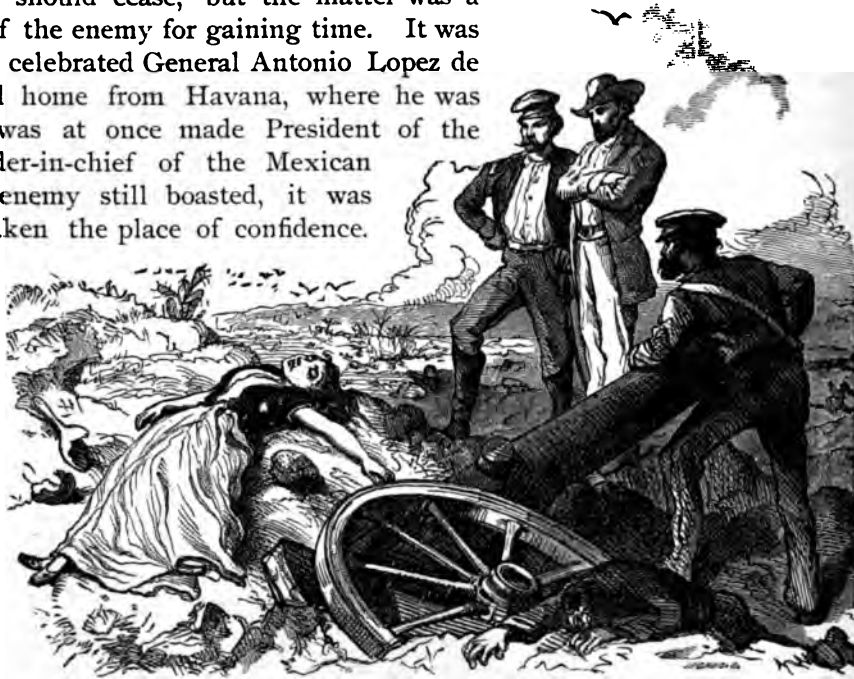
STORMING OF MONTEREY.

By this time, however, his force was increased to six thousand men, and he at once set out against Monterey. Arriving at that place on the 19th of September, he immediately invested the town. Monterey was occupied by the Mexicans ten thousand strong under General Ampudia. But disparity of numbers had already come to be disregarded by the Americans. They began the siege of Monterey with great vigor, and on the 21st of September made an assault on the rear of the town. The heights on that side were carried by

the forces under Worth. Here was situated the Bishop's Palace, a strong building commanding the entrance. But on the next day this place also was carried, and on the next Monterey was stormed by the divisions of General Quintman and Butler. The Americans charging through the streets gained the Grand Plaza, hoisted the Union flag, and routed the enemy from the buildings in which they had taken refuge. The attacking parties were obliged to charge up dark stairways, explore unknown passages, traverse the flat roofs of houses and expose themselves to every hazard. But the enemy was driven to an ignominious surrender. Ampudia was granted the honors of war on condition that he vacate the city, which he did on the morrow. Taylor's victory kindled the enthusiasm and war spirit of the Americans to a higher pitch than ever.*

News now reached General Taylor that negotiations for peace had been opened at the Mexican capital. Deceived by this intelligence, he agreed to an armistice of eight weeks, during which hostilities should cease, but the matter was a mere ruse on the part of the enemy for gaining time. It was at this juncture that the celebrated General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna was called home from Havana, where he was living in exile. He was at once made President of the republic and commander-in-chief of the Mexican armies. Though the enemy still boasted, it was clear that alarm had taken the place of confidence.

During the autumn of 1846 an army of twenty thousand Mexicans was raised and sent into the field. As soon as the armistice in the north expired Taylor assumed the offensive. General Worth moved southwest from Monterey a distance of seventy miles, and captured the town of Saltillo. Victoria, a city of Tamaulipas,



PATHETIC INCIDENT OF THE BATTLE OF MONTEREY.

was taken by the division of General Robert Patterson. To that place General Butler advanced from Monterey on a march against Tampico. That position, however, had in the meantime been taken by Captain Conner of the American navy. General Wool

* A correspondent of the *Louisville Courier* wrote a touching incident of this battle. He says: "In the midst of the conflict a Mexican woman was busily engaged in carrying bread and water to the wounded men of both armies. I saw the ministering angel raise the head of a wounded man, give him water and food, and then bind up the ghastly wound with a handkerchief she took from her own head. After having exhausted her supplies, she went back to her house to get more bread and water for others. As she was returning on her mission of mercy, to comfort other wounded persons, I heard the report of a gun, and the poor innocent creature fell dead. I think it was an accidental shot that struck her. I would not be willing to believe otherwise. It made me sick at heart; and, turning from the scene, I involuntarily raised my eyes toward heaven, and thought, Great God! is this war? Passing the spot the next day I saw her body still lying there, with the bread by her side, and the broken gourd, with a few drops of water in it—emblems of her errand. We buried her; and while we were digging her grave, cannon-balls flew around us like hail."

set forward in person from San Antonio, Texas, and came within supporting distance of Monterey. General Scott arrived at this juncture and assumed command-in-chief of the American army.

Meanwhile General Kearney at the head of the army of the West had set out for the conquest of New Mexico and California. His march to Santa Fé was wearisome in the last degree, but by the 18th of August he reached and captured that city. New Mexico was taken by a *coup de main*. Having garrisoned Santa Fé, Kearney at the head of four hundred dragoons set out for California. After a progress of three hundred miles he was joined by the famous Kit Carson, who brought him intelligence that California had already been wrested from Mexican authority. Hereupon Kearney sent back the larger part of his forces, and with only a hundred troopers made his way to the Pacific.

CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA.

Stirring events had in the meantime happened on that far coast. For four years Colonel John Charles Fremont had been engaged in explorations through and beyond the Rocky Mountains. He had hoisted the American flag on the highest peak of that mighty range,



FREMONT HOISTING THE STARS AND STRIPES ON THE LOFTIEST PEAK OF THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

and then set out for the Great Salt Lake and afterwards for Oregon. From the latter territory he turned southward into California, where on his arrival he learned of the impending war with Mexico. Seizing the situation and assuming all responsibility he incited the few American residents in California to revolt against Mexico. First of all the frontiersmen of the Sacramento valley gathered around his standard, and the campaign was organized for the subversion of Mexican authority. Several minor engagements were had

with the Spanish-Mexican posts, but the Americans were uniformly successful, and the authority of Fremont was rapidly extended over the greater part of Upper and Central California.

While these events were happening in the north Commodore Sloat of the American navy was carrying forward a similar work in the south. Arriving off the coast of Monterey, about eighty miles south of San Francisco, he captured the place and raised the American flag. At the extreme southern part of the State Commodore Stockton captured San Diego and assumed command of the Pacific squadron. Fremont continued to press his campaign in the north and centre, and effecting a junction with Sloat and Stockton advanced upon and took the city of Los Angeles. Thus before the close of summer, 1846, California had been revolutionized and placed under the American flag.

General Kearney with his hundred dragoons reached the Pacific coast in November, and joined his forces with those of Fremont and Stockton. About a month later the Mexicans, having discovered the meagreness of the forces before whom they had fled and yielded, returned to the field, and the Americans were obliged to confront them in a decisive conflict. On the 8th of January, 1847, the battle of San Gabriel was fought, in which the Mexicans were completely defeated and the results of the American conquest of the previous year confirmed. Thus by a mere handful of courageous adventurers marching from place to place, with scarcely the form of authority and with their lives in their hands, was the great empire of California wrested from the Mexican government.

General Kearney on setting out for the Pacific coast had left behind Colonel Doniphan in command of the American forces at Santa Fé. That officer fretted for a season, and then with a body of seven hundred men set out across the country from Santa Fé *en route* to Saltillo, a distance of more than eight hundred miles. On arriving at the Rio Grande, he encountered the enemy at Bracito on Christmas day, where he routed the Mexicans, and then crossing the river captured El Paso del Norte. Proceeding on his march he found himself after two months within twenty miles of Chihuahua. Here, on the banks of Sacramento creek, on the 28th of November, he met the Mexicans in great numbers, and inflicted upon them another disastrous defeat. He then captured Chihuahua, a city of forty thousand inhabitants! With but small losses Doniphan succeeded in reaching the division of General Wool in safety.

BOMBARDMENT OF VERA CRUZ.

On his arrival in Mexico General Scott drew from the north down the Rio Grande a large part of the Army of Occupation. His object was the concentration under himself of a force sufficient for the conquest of the Mexican capital. By these movements General Taylor was weakened and left in an exposed condition. The Mexicans learned of the situation, and Santa Anna at the head of an army of twenty thousand men advanced on Taylor, whose entire forces did not number six thousand. Indeed, after garrisoning Saltillo and Monterey the general's effective force numbered only four thousand eight hundred men. With this small and resolute army, however, he marched out boldly to meet the overwhelming foe and chose his battle-ground at Buena Vista, four miles south of Saltillo. Here he planted himself and awaited the onset.

The Mexican advance was from the direction of San Luis Potosi. On the 22d of February the enemy in great force came pouring through the gorges and over the hills. Santa Anna at once demanded a surrender, but was met with defiance. A general battle began on the morning of the 23d. At first the enemy made an unsuccessful attempt to out-flank the American position. Taylor's centre was next attacked; but this movement was

also repulsed. The Mexicans then threw their whole force on the American left, where the Indianians, acting under a mistaken order, gave way, and the army was for a while in peril. But the troops of Kentucky and Mississippi rallied to the breach, and the onset of the enemy was again repelled. The crisis of the battle was reached in the charge made by the Mexicans upon the American artillery under command of Captain Bragg; but the gunners stood at their batteries, and the Mexican lancers were scattered with volleys of grape-shot. A successful counter-charge was made by the American cavalry, in which the losses were severe. Against the tremendous odds the battle was fairly won. On the following night the Mexicans, having lost nearly two thousand men, made a precipitate retreat. The Americans also lost heavily, their killed, wounded and missing numbering seven hundred and forty-six. This was, however, the last of General Taylor's battles. He soon after left the field, and returned to the United States, where he was received with great enthusiasm. He was indeed, in the popular estimation, the hero of the war.

With the opening of spring, 1847, General Scott found himself at the head of an army of twelve thousand men, ready for his campaign against the capital. On the 9th of March he landed to the south of Vera Cruz and succeeded in investing that city. Batteries were planted but eight hundred yards from the defences, while on the water side the American fleet began a bombardment of the celebrated castle of San Juan d'Ulloa. This fortress had been erected by Spain in the early part of the seventeenth century, at a cost of four millions of dollars. For four days the place was beaten with shot and shell from the mortars of Commodore Connor's fleet and from the land-batteries which Scott had planted on the shore. Life and property perished in the common ruin. The Americans were already preparing to carry Vera Cruz by storm, when the humbled authorities came forth and surrendered. Thus was opened a route for the American advance from the coast to the city of Mexico.

MARCH OF THE VICTORIOUS ARMY.

The advance began on the 8th of April, 1847. The first division under command of General Twiggs set out on the road to Jalapa. General Scott followed with the main army. The advance was unopposed until the 12th of the month when the Americans came upon the enemy, fifteen thousand strong, who under command of Santa Anna had planted themselves in a strong position on the heights and rocky passes of Cerro Gordo. At first view it appeared that the Mexicans could not be driven from their stronghold; but their expulsion was a necessity to further progress. Scott arranged his army in three columns for an assault, which according to the rules and history of war promised only disaster and ruin; but the spirit of the army was high and the General did not hesitate to take the risk.



ESCAPE OF SANTA ANNA AT CERRO GORDO.

The attack was made on the morning of the 18th of April and before noonday every position of the Mexicans was carried by storm. They were hurled from their fortifications and driven off in a general rout. Nearly three thousand prisoners were captured, together

with forty-three pieces of bronze artillery, five thousand muskets and accoutrements enough to supply an army. The American loss in killed and wounded numbered four hundred and thirty-one; that of the Mexicans fully a thousand. Santa Anna barely escaped with his life by cutting loose one of the mules which drew his carriage and mounting its back, but in his haste left behind his private papers, his money chest and his *wooden leg!*

The victorious Americans pressed onward to Jalapa. On the 22d of April the strong castle Perote, crowning the peak of the Cordilleras was taken without resistance. Here the Americans obtained another park of artillery and a vast amount of ammunition and stores. General Scott next turned to the south and captured the ancient and sacred city of Puebla, a place of eighty thousand inhabitants. It was a striking scene to witness the entrance through the gates of a mere handful of invaders two thousand miles from their homes.

The 15th of May found the American army quartered in Puebla. Scott's forces had now been reduced by battle and other exigencies of the campaign to about five thousand men. He deemed it prudent, therefore, to pause until reinforcements could arrive from Vera Cruz. In the lull of active operations an attempt was made to negotiate with the enemy; but the foolish hardihood of the Mexicans prevented even the promise of success. Scott's reinforcements arrived, and with his numbers increased to eleven thousand men he set out on the 7th of August on his march to the city of Mexico.

The route now led over the crest of the Cordilleras. The Americans had anticipated strong resistance and hard fighting in the mountain passes, but the advance was unopposed and the army sweeping over the heights looked down on the Valley of Mexico. Never before had a soldiery in a foreign land beheld a more striking landscape. Clear to the horizon spread the green fields, villages and lakes—a picture too beautiful to be torn with the enginery of war.

The march was now unopposed as far as the town of Ayotla, within fifteen miles of the capital. The progress of the American army thus far had been along the great national road from Vera Cruz to Mexico. The Mexicans after their defeat at Cerro Gordo had gradually receded into the interior and established themselves about the capital. They had fortified the various positions along the national roads for miles out from the city. Perceiving the character of these defences, Scott wheeled to the south around Lake Chalco, and thence westward to San Augustine. By this detour the army was brought within ten miles of the capital.

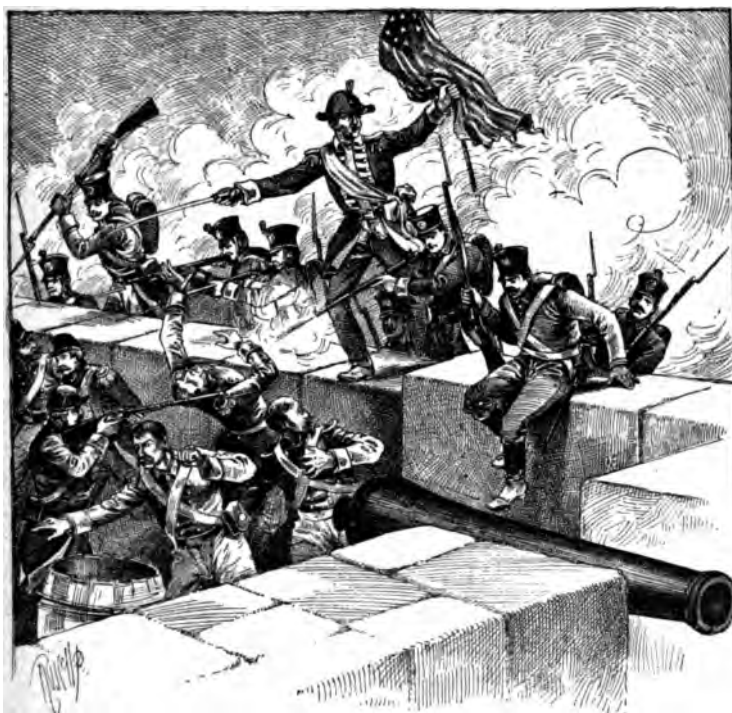
STORMING THE HEIGHTS OF CHURUBUSCO AND CHAPULTEPEC.

From San Augustine the approaches to the city were by long causeways across marshes and the beds of bygone lakes. At the ends of these causeways were massive gates strongly defended. To the left of the line of march lay the almost inaccessible positions of Contreras, San Antonio and Molino del Rey. To the front and beyond the marshes were the powerful bulwarks of two fortresses called, Churubusco and Chapultepec. These various outposts were occupied by Santa Anna with a force of fully thirty thousand Mexicans. The army of General Scott was not more than one-third as strong in numbers, but with this small force he pressed on to the attack.

The first assaults on the Mexican positions were made on the 19th of August by the divisions of Generals Pillow and Twiggs. The movement was against Contreras. The Americans pressing on in the darkness, cut the communications between the fortress and Santa Anna's army. On the following night another column led by General Persifor F. Smith moved against Contreras, and with the early morning carried the place by storm. Six thousand Mexicans were driven in rout and confusion from the fortifications. The

Americans numbered fewer than four thousand. This was the *first* victory of the memorable 20th of August.

On the same morning General Worth advanced on San Antonio and compelled the enemy to evacuate the place. This was the *second* victory. At the same hour General Pillow moved against one of the heights of Churubusco. Here the Mexicans had concentrated in great force, and here they fought with considerable spirit; but the height was carried by storm and the garrison scattered like chaff. This was the *third* triumph of the day. The division of General Twiggs stormed and held another height of Churubusco. This was the *fourth* victory. The *fifth* and last was achieved by Generals Shields and Pierce. The latter confronted Santa Anna, who was marching out of the city with reinforcements, attacked him and drove him back with large losses. The whole of the Mexican army was now withdrawn or driven into the fortifications of Chapultepec.



STORMING OF CHAPULTEPEC.

On the morning of the 21st of August, the Mexican authorities being greatly alarmed sent out a deputation to negotiate with the victors; but the terms suggested by the Mexicans were preposterous, and General Scott, who did not consider his army vanquished — as the Mexicans alleged—rejected the proposals with contempt. The weather, however, was exceedingly oppressive, and the general rested his men until the 7th of September. With the morning of the 8th the advance was begun by General Worth, who moved against Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata, the western defences of Chapultepec. These places were defended by about fourteen thousand

Mexicans. The Americans made the assault with their usual desperation, lost a fourth of their number, but carried both positions. The batteries were taken and turned on Chapultepec itself. Five days afterwards that frowning citadel was assaulted by the Americans in force, and was carried by storm. By this victory an avenue was opened into the city. Through the San Cosme and Belen gates the conquering army swept resistlessly, and at nightfall the soldiers of the Union found themselves in the suburbs of Mexico.

A CAMPAIGN OF UNEXAMPLED BRILLIANCY.

Santa Anna and the government fled from the city. On their retreat they turned loose from the prisons two thousand convicts, with license to fire upon the American army. On the following morning before dawn a deputation came forth from the city to beg for mercy. Now were the messengers in earnest; but General Scott, wearied with trifling, turned them away in disgust. "*Forward!*" was the order. It rang along the American lines at sun-

rise. The war-worn regiments swept into the beautiful streets of the ancient city, and at seven o'clock the flag of the United States was hoisted over the halls of the Montezumas. It was the triumphant ending of one of the most brilliant and striking campaigns of modern history.

The American army as compared with the hosts of Mexico had been but a handful. The small force which left Vera Cruz on the march to the capital lost much by battle and disease. Many detachments had to be posted *en route* to hold the line of communications and for garrison duty in sundry places. After the battles of Churubusco and Chapultepec *fewer than six thousand men* were left to enter and hold the capital of Mexico. The campaign had never been seriously impeded. No foot of ground once taken from the Mexicans was yielded by false tactics or lost by battle. The army which accomplished this marvel of invasion through a densely peopled country, held by a proud race claiming to be the descendants of Cortez and the Spanish heroes of the sixteenth century—denounced at every step as a horde of barbarians out of the North—was in large part, at least in the final campaigns, an army of volunteers which had risen from the States of the Union and marched to Mexico under the Union flag.

Santa Anna, after leaving his capital, turned about and treacherously attacked the American hospitals at Puebla. There about eighteen hundred American sick had been left in charge of Colonel Childs. For several days a gallant resistance was made by the enfeebled garrison, until General Joseph Lane, on his way to the capital, fell upon the besiegers and drove them away. Such was the closing stroke of the war—a contest in which the Americans had gained every single victory from first to last.

The Mexican military power was left in a state of complete overthrow. Santa Anna, the President and commander-in-chief, was a fugitive. It was clear that the war was over, and that the American government might dictate its own terms of settlement. The Mexican Republic was completely prostrated, and must needs sue for peace.

Negotiations were opened in the winter of 1847-48. American ambassadors met the Mexican Congress in session at Guadalupe Hidalgo, and on the 2d of February a treaty was concluded between the two nations. A prompt ratification followed on the part of the two governments, and on the 4th of July, 1848, President Polk issued a proclamation of peace.

Great were the changes effected in the territorial boundaries of America and Mexico by the treaty of Guadalupe. Most important was the fixing of the dividing line between the two countries, which was established as follows:—the Rio Grande from its mouth to the southern limit of New Mexico; thence westward along the southern and northward along the western boundary of that territory to the River Gila; thence down that River to its confluence with the Colorado; thence westward to the Pacific Ocean. Thus was the whole of New Mexico and upper California relinquished to the United States. Mexico guaranteed the free navigation of the Gulf of California and of the rivers of the boundary. The United States on their part agreed to surrender the places occupied by the American army in Mexico, to pay that country fifteen million dollars, and to assume all debts due from the Mexican government to American citizens, said debts not to exceed three million five hundred thousand dollars. It was thus, after the lapse of sixty-five years from the treaty of 1783, that the territory of the United States was extended in an unbroken belt from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

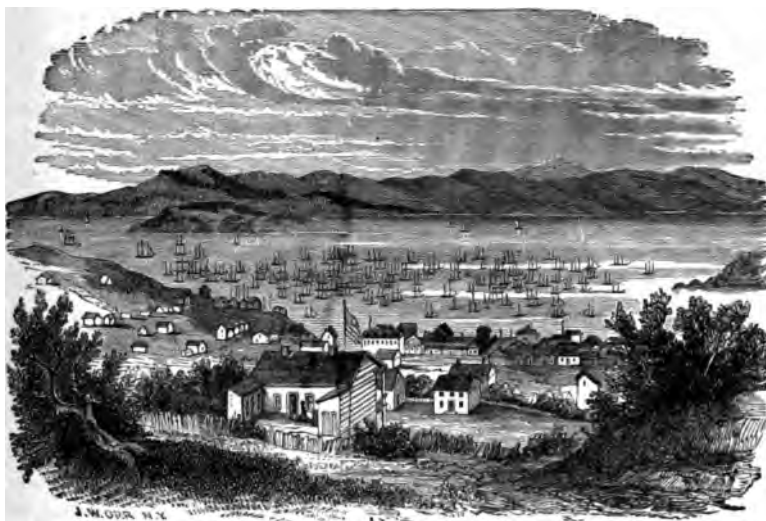
BOUNDARY LINE BETWEEN BRITISH AMERICA AND THE UNITED STATES.

So ended the Mexican war, and such were its results. On the north, meanwhile, the boundary line between the United States and the dominions of Great Britain had not been

definitely determined. The sudden extension of our territories to the Pacific furnished a powerful incentive to the settlement of our northern limits, as well as the boundary on the southwest. The adversary in this case, however, was a party very different from Mexico. The Oregon line had been in dispute since the early years of the century. According to the treaty of 1818 the international boundary between the United States and the British dominions had been carried westward from the northwestern extremity of the Lake of the Woods to the crest of the Rocky Mountains, but from that point to the Pacific the two powers could not agree on a dividing line.

The United States, from 1807 downwards, had continued to claim the parallel of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes, but this boundary Great Britain refused to accept. In August of 1827 a conference was held by agents of the two governments, and it was agreed that the vast region west of the Rocky Mountains lying between the forty-ninth parallel and the line of fifty-four degrees forty minutes should remain open indefinitely and impartially for the joint occupation of British and American citizens. Thus the difficulty was postponed for sixteen years, but thoughtful statesmen, both British and American, looked with alarm and anxiety to the existence of so serious a dispute.

In 1843 negotiations were formally reopened. The American Minister to England proposed the parallel of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes, but this proposition was rejected as before. In the following year the British ambassador at Washington again claimed the forty-ninth parallel as the true boundary, but to this the American government refused assent. The matter involved came to an issue on the 15th of June, 1846, when the



SAN FRANCISCO IN 1849.

question was definitely settled by a treaty. Every point in the long-standing controversy was decided in favor of Great Britain. In the many diplomatical contentions between that country and our own the United States has always been able to maintain its position with this single exception of the north-western boundary. The complete surrender to the British government in this particular was little less than ignominious, and can be accounted for only on the ground that the government of the United States, as it then was, was indifferent to the extension of her domains by the addition of free territory. At any rate the settlement was such as to deprive our country of a vast and valuable region inaccessible to slavery and extensive enough for ten Free States as large as Indiana.*

DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA.

Scarcely had the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo been signed when an event occurred which produced a profound agitation throughout the civilized nations. A laborer employed

* Such was the indignation of the opponents of this treaty, especially the leaders of the Whig party, that the political battle cry of "Fifty-four Forty, or Fight," became almost as popular a motto as "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights" had been in the war of 1812.

by Captain Sutter to cut a mill-race on the American Fork of Sacramento River discovered *some pieces of gold* in the sand where he was digging. With further search other particles were found. The metal was tested and found to be genuine. The news spread as if borne on the wind. From all quarters adventurers came flocking. Explorers went out and returned with information of new discoveries here and there. For a time it seemed that there would be no end, no limit, to the quantity of gold which might be had for picking up. Straggling gold-hunters sometimes gathered in a few hours the value of five hundred dollars.

The intelligence went flying through the States to the Atlantic Ocean, and then to the ends of the world. Men thousands of miles away were crazed with excitement and cupidity.

Workshops were shut up, business houses abandoned, fertile farms left tenantless, offices deserted. At this time the overland routes to California were scarcely known. Nevertheless thousands of eager adventurers started from the Western States on the long journey across the mountains and plains. Immigrants and miners poured in from all directions. Before the end of 1850 San Francisco had grown from a miserable Spanish village of huts to a city of fifteen thousand inhabitants. By the close of 1852 California had a population of more than a quarter of a million. The importance of the gold mines of California to the industries of the country and of the world has never been overestimated, nor is their richness yet exhausted.



SUTTER'S MILL, WHERE MARSHALL DISCOVERED GOLD IN CALIFORNIA.

The year 1846 was marked by the passage of a Congressional act for the organization of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington. Twenty-two years previous James Smithson,* an eminent English chemist and philanthropist, had died at Genoa, bequeathing on certain conditions a large sum of money to the United States. In the fall of 1838 Smithson's nephew and only heir died without issue, and the properties of his uncle, amounting to five hundred and fifteen thousand dollars, were secured by an agent of the National Government. The funds were at first deposited in the mint. Smithson's will provided that his bequest should be used for the establishment at Washington city of "an institution for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." In order to carry out the designs of the testator, a plan of organization was prepared by John Quincy Adams and adopted by Congress. The result has been the establishment in the United States of one of the most beneficent institutions known in the history of mankind. The "Smithsonian Con-

* Until after his graduation at Oxford, in 1786, this remarkable man was known by the name of *James Louis Macie*. Afterward, of his own accord, he chose the name of his reputed father, Hugh Smith, Duke of Northumberland, but added the syllable *son* to indicate his descent.

tributions to Knowledge" already amount to more than thirty volumes quarto, and the future is destined to yield still richer results in widening the boundaries of human thought and increasing the happiness of men.

The mortuary record of this epoch includes not a few illustrious names. First of these may be mentioned ex-President Andrew Jackson, who died at his home called the Hermitage, near Nashville, on the 8th of June, 1845. The veteran warrior and statesman had reached the age of seventy-eight. On the 23d of February, 1848, ex-President John Quincy Adams died at the city of Washington. After his retirement from the Presidency he had been elected to represent his district in Congress. In that body he had displayed the most remarkable abilities and patriotism. There he acquired the well earned sobriquet of the "Old Man Eloquent." At the time of his decease he was a member of the House of Representatives. He was struck with paralysis in the very seat from which he had so many times electrified the nation with his fervent and cogent oratory.

In 1848 Wisconsin, last of the five great States formed from the territory northwest of the river Ohio, was admitted into the Union. The new commonwealth came with a population of two hundred and fifty thousand and an area of nearly fifty-four thousand square miles. In establishing the western boundary of the State, by an error of surveying, the St. Croix River instead of the Mississippi was fixed as the line by which Wisconsin lost to Minnesota a considerable district belonging to her territory.

It was at this time that the new cabinet office known as the Department of the Interior was added to those already existing. At the foundation of the government three departments only had been organized. To these were added in course of time the offices of Postmaster-General and Secretary of the Navy. The Attorney General of the United States had meanwhile come to be recognized as a member of the cabinet. The duties of the Department of the Interior were gathered by a division of labor from the Departments of State and the Treasury. The new secretaryship was first filled by General Thomas Ewing, of Ohio.

BIRTH OF THE FREE SOIL PARTY.

As Polk's administration drew to a close three parties and three candidates appeared in the field of political conflict. General Lewis Cass, of Michigan, was nominated by the Democrats and General Zachary Taylor by the Whigs. The accession of vast and unoccupied territories by the successful war with Mexico had now developed in considerable vigor the anti-slavery sentiment among the American people. At first this sentiment was expressed in simple opposition to the extension of slavery into the hitherto unoccupied national domains. As the representative of this sentiment, ex-President Martin Van Buren was brought forward as the candidate of the new Free Soil party. The circumstances which gave rise to this party, destined to play so important a part in the future history of the country, may well be recounted.

The principles upon which the Free Soil party was based were aroused into activity by the treaty of the United States with Mexico and by the general results of the war. It was in 1846 that David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, introduced into Congress a bill to prohibit slavery in all the territories which might be secured by the treaty with Mexico. The author of the measure and many other statesmen and philanthropists had divined the bottom motive which was impelling the American conquest of Mexican territory. That motive was the desire for the acquisition of vast regions on the southwest for the spread and development of human slavery. By this means—by the creation of new States in that quarter of the horizon—the equipoise between slave-holding and anti-slave-holding principles and powers might be maintained in the Senate of the United States.

The proposition of Wilmot was the key to all that ensued in opposition to the extension of slavery. The bill was defeated, but the advocates of the measure called the "Wilmot Proviso," formed themselves into a party, and in June of 1848 nominated Van Buren for the Presidency. The real contest, however, lay between the Whig and Democratic candidates. The position of the two old parties on the question of slavery had not as yet been, nor indeed could ever be, clearly defined. As a consequence the election was left to turn on the personal popularity of the two candidates and such minor factitious questions as the politicians were able to devise. The memory of General Taylor's recent victories in Mexico and the democratic features of his character prevailed, and he was elected by a large majority. As Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, of New York, was chosen.

Zachary Taylor was by birth a Virginian; by breeding a Kentuckian; by profession a soldier; in politics a Whig. He was born on the 24th of September, 1784. His father was Colonel Richard Taylor, an officer of the Revolution. In 1785 the family removed to Kentucky which was at that time the western extension of the Old Dominion. Young Taylor distinguished himself in the war of 1812. He won honors in the northwest, particularly in the defence of Fort Harrison against the Indians. His services were conspicuous in the war with the Seminoles. His renown became great in our conflict with Mexico. In that struggle he outshined General Scott, and his popularity made easy his way to the Presidency. His reputation was military, his fame enviable, his character above reproach. His administration began with a renewal of the question about slavery in the Territories. California, the Eldorado of the West, was the origin of the dispute which now broke out with increased and increasing violence.

SLAVERY QUESTION AGAIN AGITATED.

President Taylor in his first message to Congress expressed his sympathy with the Californians and advised them to frame a constitution preparatory to admission into the Union. The people of California caught eagerly at the suggestion and a convention of delegates was held at Monterey in September of 1849, only eighteen months after the treaty of Guadalupe. A constitution was formed *prohibiting slavery* and was adopted with little opposition by the people. Peter H. Burnett was elected governor. Members of a General Assembly were chosen and on the 20th of December, 1849, the new government was organized at San José. A petition in the usual form was forwarded to Congress asking for the admission of California as a State.

Now were the scenes attendant upon the admission of Missouri reenacted in the Congressional halls; but the parts were reversed. As in that great debate, the Representatives and Senators were sectionally divided. The proposition to admit California was supported by Northern Congressmen and opposed by those of the South. The ground of such opposition was that the Missouri Compromise line in its extension to the Pacific crossed California, whereby a part of the proposed State was opened to the institution of slavery—this by an act of Congress which no Territorial Legislature could abrogate. The Southern Representatives for the most part claimed that California ought to be rejected until the restriction on slavery should be removed. The reply of the Northern Representatives was more moral, but less logical. They said that the arguments of the opponents of the bill for admission could apply to only a *part* of California; that the Missouri Compromise had respect only to the Louisiana purchase and that California could not properly be regarded as a part of that purchase; that the people of the proposed State had in any event framed their constitution to suit themselves. Such was the issue. The debates became violent, even to the extent of endangering the stability of the Union.

It was at this juncture that the illustrious Henry Clay appeared for the last time as a conspicuous figure in the councils of his country. He came, as he had come before, in the character of a peacemaker. His known predilection for compromise was once more manifested in full force. In the spring of 1850, while the questions referred to were under hot discussion in Congress, Clay was appointed chairman of a committee of thirteen to whom all matters under discussion were referred. On the 9th of May, in that year, he reported to Congress the celebrated Omnibus Bill, covering most of the points in dispute. The provisions of this celebrated measure were as follows: *First*, the admission of California as a free State under the constitution already adopted: *second*, the formation of new States not



exceeding four in number out of the territory of Texas, said States to permit or exclude slavery as the people thereof should determine; *third*, the organization of territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah without conditions on the question of slavery; *fourth*, the establishment of the present boundary line between Texas and New Mexico and the payment to Texas for surrendering New Mexico the sum of ten millions of dollars from the national treasury; *fifth*, the enactment of a more vigorous law for the recovery of fugitive slaves; *sixth*, the abolition of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia.

The report of the Omnibus Bill precipitated a new debate in Congress which seemed likely to be interminable. In the midst of the discussion President Taylor fell sick and died on the 9th day of July, 1850. Vice-President Fillmore at once took the oath of office and formed a new cabinet, with Daniel Webster as Secretary of State.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE SIXTH DECADE.



WITH the beginning of Fillmore's administration we enter upon a peculiar period in American history. It was the epoch during which public opinion was gradually transformed from the support of the institution of slavery and the condition of society in which slavery had its ground and root to another and more progressive and enlightened phase of progress and national morality. The period in question corresponded in time with the sixth decade of our century. It covered the administrations of Fillmore, Pierce and Buchanan. Its opening was marked by the passage of the Omnibus Bill. The discussion of this great and complex measure continued to the 18th of September, when the last clause was

adopted and the whole received the sanction of the President.

This bill was sustained and carried through Congress by the eloquence and persistency of Henry Clay. After the adoption of the bill the excitement of the country rapidly abated and it seemed for the day that the distracting controversy was at an end. The peaceful condition, however, was only superficial. The deep-seated cause of the evil remained as before. The institution of slavery still existed and was destined in spite of all compromise still to disturb the harmony of American society until it should be cut from the body of our national life with the keen edge of the sword. For the present, however, there was quiet. The compromise acts of 1850 were in the nature of an anodyne. They were administered with good intent and were the last, perhaps the greatest of those temporary, pacific measures which originated in the patriotism and hopeful spirit of Henry Clay. Shortly afterwards he bade adieu to the Senate and sought at his beloved Ashland a brief rest from the arduous cares of public life.

The Omnibus Bill proved to be a strictly *political* settlement. By it the *moral* convictions of few men were altered or amended. Public opinion took its own course as it always does despite the puny efforts of the men who sometimes vainly imagine that they make human history. In the North there appeared a general indefinite and growing hostility to slavery; in the south, a fixed and resolute purpose to defend and extend that institution.

To the Whig President whose party was in the ascendant in most of the Free States, the measure was fatal. Although the members of his cabinet advised him to sign the bill, the Whigs were at heart strongly opposed to more than one of its provisions. The Fugitive Slave Law grated harshly on the awakening conscience of many of the best men of the epoch. When the President signed the bill they turned coldly from him. Though his administration in other respects was one of the ablest, most enlightened and progressive

known in our history, his dalliance with the institution of slavery, however necessary such a course might have appeared to be, was not forgiven. Two years afterwards in the Whig national convention of 1852, although the policy of the President, with the usual political hypocrisy was indorsed and approved by a vote of two hundred and twenty-seven against sixty, not twenty votes could be obtained in all the Northern States for the renomination of Fillmore! Thus do political parties punish their leaders for hesitating to espouse a principle which the parties themselves are afraid to avow!

FILIBUSTERS IN CUBA.

To this period belongs the story of the attempt made by a few lawless American adventurers to gain possession of the island of Cuba. Rumors of Cuban discontent had reached the United States, and it was believed by the insurrectionists that the Cubans were ready to throw off the Spanish yoke and to appeal to the United States for annexation. In order to further a rebellion against Spain, General Narciso Lopez, a Spanish-American soldier, fitted out an expedition in the Southern States and on the 19th of May, 1850, landed with a considerable body of followers at Cardenas, a port in Cuba. •

No uprising followed the adventure. Neither the Cubans nor the Spanish soldiers in the island joined Lopez's standard and he was obliged to return to Florida. Not satisfied with this experience, he renewed the attempt in the following year and invaded Cuba with four hundred and eighty men. The force, however, was attacked, defeated, captured and the ringleaders were taken to Havana, tried, condemned and executed.

President Fillmore in his first annual message recommended to the consideration of Congress many important measures. Among these were the following: A cheap and uniform postage; the establishment, in connection with the Department of the Interior, of a Bureau of Agriculture; liberal appropriations for the improvement of rivers and harbors; the building of a national asylum for disabled and destitute seamen; a permanent tariff, with specific duties on imports, and discrimination in favor of American manufactures; the opening of communication between the Mississippi and the Pacific coast; a settlement of the land-difficulties in California; an act for the retirement of supernumerary officers of the army and navy; and a board of commissioners to adjust the claims of private citizens against the government of the United States. Perhaps no other series of recommendations so statesmanlike and unpartisan has ever been made to the Congress of the United States. Only *two* of the recommendations, however—the asylum for sailors and the settlement of the land-claims in California—were carried into effect. The Whigs of the President's party were in a minority in Congress, and the majority refused or neglected to approve these measures.

A difficulty now arose with Great Britain relative to the coast-fisheries of Newfoundland. These belonged exclusively to England; but outside of a line drawn at the distance of a marine league from the shore American fishermen had certain rights and privileges. In course of time a contention sprang up between the fishermen of the two nationalities about the location of the line. Should the same be drawn from headland to headland, thus including bays and inlets? Or should the line be made to conform to the irregularities of the coast? The latter construction was favorable to American interests; the former, to those of Great Britain. The quarrel grew so hot that both nations sent men-of-war into the disputed waters. The difficulty extended from 1852 to 1854, and it frequently seemed that hostilities were imminent. Reason, however, triumphed over passion, and the difficulty was settled by negotiation in a manner favorable to the interests of the United States.

THE HUNGARIAN PATRIOT, AND NORTH POLE EXPEDITIONS.

In the summer of 1852, Louis Kossuth, the celebrated Hungarian patriot, made a tour of the United States, and was received with enthusiastic admiration. He came as the representative of the lost cause of Hungary in her struggle against Austria and Russia. He sought such aid as might be privately given to him by those favorable to Hungarian liberty. His mission in this respect was highly successful; the long-established policy of the United States forbade the government to interfere in behalf of Hungary, but the people in their private capacity gave to the cause of freedom in that land abundant contributions.

To the same period in our history belong the first efforts of explorers to penetrate the regions about the North Pole. Systematic efforts were now made to enter and explore the Arctic ocean. As early as 1845 Sir John Franklin, one of the bravest of English seamen, sailed on a voyage of discovery to the extreme north. He believed in the possibility of an open polar sea and of a passage through the same into the Pacific. Franklin made his way to a great distance in the direction of his delusive hopes, but the extent of his success was never ascertained. Years passed, and no tidings came from the daring sailor. It was only known that he had passed the country of the Esquimaux.

Following in the wake of the Franklin expedition, others went, first of all in search of Franklin himself, and after that to explore the Arctic regions. Henry Grinnell, a wealthy merchant of New York, fitted out several vessels at his own expense, put them under command of Lieutenant De Haven, and sent them to the north; but in vain. The government came to the rescue. In 1853 an Arctic squadron was equipped, and the command given to Dr. Elisha Kent Kane; but this expedition also, though fruitful in scientific results, returned without discovering Franklin.

The necrology of this epoch included, first of all, the great name of John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina. The distinguished Senator passed away on the 31st of March, 1850. His death was much lamented, especially in his own State, to whose interests and rights, as he understood them, he had devoted the energies of his life. His earnestness and zeal and powers of debate placed him in the front rank of American orators. As a statesman, however, he was wedded to the destructive theory of State rights. The advocacy of this doctrine against the supremacy of Congress and the nation has placed him on a lower level than that of his great contemporaries Webster and Clay. At the age of sixty-eight he fell from his place like a scarred oak of the forest, never to rise again. Then followed the death of President Taylor, already mentioned. On the 28th of June, 1852, Henry Clay, having fought his last battle, sank to rest. On the 24th of the following October the illustrious Daniel Webster died at his home at Marshfield, Massachusetts. The place of Secretary of State made vacant by his death was conferred on the scholarly Edward Everett.

The ridiculous attempt of Lopez to start a revolution in Cuba, though the movement was totally disavowed by the United States and the officer at New Orleans dismissed who had permitted the expedition to escape from that port, created much excitement in Europe. The governments of Great Britain and France blustered, affecting to believe that the covert aim and purpose of the United States was to acquire Cuba by conquest—that our government was really behind the absurd fiasco of Lopez. Acting upon this theory the British and French Ministers at Washington proposed to the government to enter into a *Tripartite Treaty*, so-called, in which each of the contracting nations was to disclaim forever all intention of gaining possession of Cuba.

EVERETT'S REPLY TO ENGLAND.

To this proposal Mr. Everett replied in one of the ablest papers ever issued from the American Department of State. He informed Great Britain and France that the annexation

of Cuba was foreign to the policy of his government; that the project was regarded by the United States as a measure both hazardous and impolitic; that entire good faith would be kept with Spain and with all nations; but that the Federal government did not recognize in any European power the right to interfere in affairs purely American, and that any such interference with the principle and doctrine set forth by President Monroe would be regarded as an affront to the sovereignty of the United States. Such were the last matters of importance connected with the administration of President Fillmore. It is proper to say that had his policies and measures been cordially approved and seconded by the political leaders who controlled Congress the administration would have passed into history as the most salutary since the beginning of the century.

It had now come to pass, however, that political parties existed for themselves, for their own perpetuation in power and for the purpose of using the government of the United States for the ulterior purposes of partisan advantage. The time arrived for another presidential election, and Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, was put forward as the candidate of the Democratic party. General Winfield Scott was selected as the standard-bearer of the Whigs. The political aspect was wholly ridiculous. The only issue which could be found or invented seemed to be that involved in upholding the Compromise Acts of 1850. Both parties, strangely enough, instead of dividing on that issue, were for once agreed as to the wisdom and justice of the measure. Both the Whig and Democratic platforms stoutly reaffirmed the principles of the Omnibus Bill, by which the dissensions of the country had for the time been quieted.

The philosophic eye may discover in this political unanimity of 1852 the exact conditions of a universal revolt against the principles so stoutly affirmed. Certain it is that when the two political parties in any modern nation agree to maintain a given theory and fact that theory and fact are destined to speedy overthrow. The greater the unanimity the more certain the revolution. It was so in the present instance. Although the Whigs and Democrats agreed as to the righteousness of the Omnibus Bill, a third party arose, whose members, whether Whigs or Democrats, doubted and denied the wisdom of the compromise of 1850, and declared that *all* the Territories of the United States ought to be free. John P. Hale, of New Hampshire, was put forward as the candidate of this Free Soil party, and the largeness of his vote showed unmistakably the approach of the coming storm. Pierce, however, was elected by a handsome majority, with William R. King, of Alabama, for Vice-President.

The new chief executive was a native of New Hampshire, a graduate of Bowdoin College, a lawyer by profession, a politician, a general of the Mexican war, a statesman of considerable ability. Mr. King, the Vice-President, had for a long time represented Alabama in the Senate of the United States, but his health was broken and he was sojourning in Cuba at the time of the inauguration. There he received the oath of office and hopes were entertained of his recovery; but he grew more feeble and presently returned to his own State where he expired on the 18th of April, 1853. At the head of the new cabinet was placed William L. Marcy, of New York, as Secretary of State.

PACIFIC RAILWAY PROJECT, AND OPENING THE PORTS OF JAPAN.

Now it was that the question of the Pacific Railway was first agitated. As early as the summer of 1853 a corps of engineers was sent out by the government to explore a suitable route. At first the enterprise was regarded as visionary, but the intelligent minority clearly discerned the feasibility and future success of the enterprise. It was at this time that the

disputed boundary between New Mexico and the Mexican province of Chihuahua was satisfactorily settled. The maps on which the former treaties with Mexico had been based were found to be erroneous. Santa Anna, who had again become President of the Mexican Republic, attempted to take advantage of the error and sent an army to occupy the territory between the true and the false boundary. This action was resisted by New Mexico and the national authorities and for a time a second war with the Mexican Republic seemed imminent. The difficulty, however, was adjusted by the purchase of the doubtful claim of New Mexico. This transaction, known as the Gadsden Purchase, led to the organization of the new Territory of Arizona.

The year 1853 was memorable for the opening of intercourse between the United States and the Empire of Japan. Hitherto the Oriental policy had prevailed with the Japanese government and the ports of the country had been closed against the vessels of Christian nations. In order to remove this foolish and injurious restriction Commodore Perry, the son of Oliver H. Perry, of the war of 1812, sailed with his squadron into the Bay of Yeddo. Being warned to depart he explained to the Japanese officers the desire of the United States to enter into a commercial treaty with the Emperor. There was much delay and hesitancy on the part of the Japanese government, but consent was at length obtained and Commodore Perry was admitted to an interview with the Emperor. On the 14th of July, 1853, the American officer presented to the monarch a letter from the President of the United States. For a while the old distrust prevailed; but in the spring of 1854 a treaty was effected by the terms of which the privileges of commerce were conceded to American vessels and two ports of entry were designated for their use.

While these events were happening in the Orient the second World's Fair was opened in the Crystal Palace at New York City. The sixth decade marked the beginning of the era of international expositions. The American Crystal Palace was a marvel in architecture, being built exclusively of iron and glass. Thousands of specimens of the arts and manufactures of all civilized nations were put on exhibition within the spacious building. The enterprise and inventive genius of the American people were quickened into new life by the display, and an impetus was given to artistic and manufacturing industries. It cannot be doubted that international expositions are among the happiest fruits of an enlightened age.

WALKER'S EXPEDITION TO NICARAGUA.

The spirit of filibustering now reappeared in General William Walker and his invasion of Central America. This audacious adventurer undertook his enterprise in 1853. He made California his base of operations, and first conducted a band of lawless men against La Paz, in old California. In the following year he led an expedition into the State of Sonora, where he was defeated and taken prisoner. He was subjected to a trial at San Francisco, but was acquitted. Soon afterwards he raised another company and proceeded to Central America. There he was joined by a regiment of insurgents, with whose aid he fought and gained a battle at Rivas, on the 29th of June, 1855. In another conflict at Virgin Bay he was again victorious. He rose to influence, gained the upper hand and was presently elected President of Nicaragua.

Then came a change in his fortunes. A counter rebellion broke out, and the enemies of Walker were encouraged and assisted by the Vanderbilt Steamship Company of the United States. He was soon overthrown, and on May 1st, 1857, was again made prisoner. Securing his release he returned to New Orleans and organized a third force, made up of men who had everything to gain and nothing to lose. Returning to Nicaragua, fortune

went against him, and he was obliged to surrender to Commodore Paulding of the United States navy. Taken to New York, he managed to regain his liberty, gathered another company about him, and in June of 1860 reached Central America for the third time. With his army he made a descent on Truxilo, Honduras; but the President of the State, assisted by a British man-of-war, overpowered and captured nearly the whole band. On the 3d of September Walker was brought to trial and condemned to be shot. The courage with which he met his fate has half redeemed his forfeited fame, and left aftertimes in doubt whether he shall be called fanatic or hero.*

At this period occurred the celebrated international episode known as the Martin Koszta affair. Martin Koszta had been a leader in the Hungarian rebellion of 1849. When that insurrection was suppressed he fled to Turkey, whence he was demanded as a traitor by the Austrian government. Turkey refused to render up the fugitive, but agreed that he might go for refuge to some foreign land never to return. Koszta chose the United States, came hither and took out his papers of intention, but not papers of completed naturalization. In 1854, contrary to his former promise, he returned to Smyrna, where he received a passport from the American consul and went ashore.

The Austrian consul at Smyrna, having no power to arrest Koszta *on shore*, instigated some bandits to seize him and throw him into the waters of the bay; there a boat which lay in wait picked him up and put him on board an Austrian frigate. The American officials immediately demanded the release of Koszta, and the captain of the sloop *St. Louis* loaded his guns, pointed them at the Austrian vessel, and was about to make quick work, when it was agreed by all parties that the prisoner should be put in charge of the French government until his nationality should be authoritatively decided. Then began a long and complicated international correspondence, in which the American Secretary of State, William L. Marcy, prevailed in argument, and Koszta was remanded to the United States. Of so much importance is the life of *one man* when it involves the great question of human rights.

QUESTION OF ANNEXING CUBA.

After the descent of Lopez upon Cuba the relations of the United States and Spain were strained for a season. President Pierce entertained the belief that on account of the financial embarrassments of the Spanish government Cuba might now be peaceably purchased and annexed to the United States. The purpose of gaining Cuba had been covertly entertained by several Democratic Presidents—this, with the ulterior design of extending the slave territory of the United States. The desire to purchase Cuba was one of those devices by which it was hoped to keep up the equipoise of the South and of the system of slave labor on the one side, as against the growing North and the system of free labor on the other.

The pending question was submitted to a commission having for its chairman James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania. A convention of ambassadors from the various governments interested was held at Ostend and an important instrument was there drawn up, chiefly by Mr. Buchanan, known as the Ostend manifesto. The document was devoted for the most part to a statement of the arguments in favor of the annexation of Cuba to the United States by purchase. Nothing, however, of practical importance resulted from the conference or the manifesto. The logic of events was against the purchase and the question was allowed to lapse.

* The poet Joaquin Miller, claiming to have been a member of Walker's band in the first invasion of Central America, has affectionately embalmed the memory of his brave leader in a poem, "With Walker in Nicaragua," which might well conciliate the good opinion of posterity.

Now had come, under the forward movement of civilization, the time and necessity for the territorial organization of the great domains lying west of Minnesota, Iowa and Missouri. Already into those vast regions the tides of emigration were pouring and a government of some kind was necessary for the protection of the ever-increasing frontier communities. One must needs see in the retrospect the inevitable renewal under these conditions of the slavery question as the most important issue which was likely to affect the creation of new Territories and new States.

It was in January of 1854 that the real agitation began. In that year Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, introduced into the Senate of the United States a proposition to organize the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska. In the bill reported for this purpose the author inserted a clause providing that the people of the two Territories in forming their constitutions *should decide for themselves* whether the new States should be free or slaveholding. Should this clause obtain, it would constitute a virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise, for both of the new Territories lay north of the parallel of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes, above which line it had been provided in the Missouri compact that slavery or involuntary servitude should not exist.

The ulterior motive of Senator Douglas in thus opening anew a question which had been settled with so great difficulty thirty-three years before cannot well be ascertained. The friends of that statesman have claimed that his action was based on the theory that all the Territories of the Union should, as an abstract and general proposition, be left entirely free to decide their domestic institutions for themselves. The opponents of Douglas held that his object was covertly to open in this manner the vast domain of Kansas and Nebraska to the institution of slavery, and by this policy he hoped to secure the everlasting gratitude of the South. To that section it was alleged that he looked in his aspirations for the Presidency. However this may be, the result of his measure in the Senate was inevitable. The old settlement of the slavery question was suddenly undone.

EFFORTS TO EXTEND SLAVERY LEAD TO BORDER WARFARE.

With the introduction of the so-called Kansas-Nebraska Bill violent debates began in Congress and continued from January to May of 1854. All the bitter sectional antagonisms of the past were aroused in full force. It was as though a literal Pandora's Box had been opened in the halls of government. The bill was violently opposed by a majority of the Northern and Eastern representatives; but the minority from the North and East, combining with the Congressmen of the South, enabled Douglas to carry his measure through Congress, and in May the bill was passed and received the sanction of the President.

With this act the struggle which had been waged in Congress had been transferred to Kansas. Should the new State admit slavery or exclude it? The decision of the question now lay with the people or so-called squatters of the Territory. Douglas's theory was named Squatter Sovereignty, and the opposite view National Sovereignty. Free-State men and Slave-State men both made a rush for the Territory. Both parties were backed by strong factions throughout the Union. Kansas was soon filled with an agitated mass of people thousands of whom had been sent thither *to vote*. The Free-State partisans gained the advantage in immigration; but this was counterbalanced by the proximity of the great slave State of Missouri. With only a modest river between her western borders and the plains of Kansas she might easily discharge into the Territory a large part of her floating population, to be remanded whenever the purpose for which it was sent across the boundary had been subserved.

The Territorial election of November, 1854, resulted in the choice of a pro-slavery delegate to Congress. In the general election of the following year, the same party was triumphant. A pro-slavery State legislature chosen at this time assembled at the town of Lecompton, organized a government and framed a constitution permitting slavery. The Free-Soil party, however, declared the general election invalid on account of the large imported vote from Missouri and other frauds. A Free-State convention was held at Topeka, and a constitution adopted excluding slavery. The rival governments were organized, and civil war broke out between the two factions.

For about a year (1855-56) the Territory was the scene of turmoil and violence. In September, 1855, the President appointed John W. Geary, of Pennsylvania, military governor of Kansas, with full powers to restore order and punish lawlessness. On his arrival, warlike demonstrations ceased, and the hostile parties were dispersed. By this time, however, the agitation having its centre in the afflicted Territory spread to all parts of the Union. Out of this complex and stormy condition of affairs the political issues were evolved for the presidential election of 1856.

BITTER CAMPAIGN OF 1856.

James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, appeared as the candidate of the Democratic party. As for the Whig party, that was in a state of dissolution. The greater part had espoused the cause of Free Kansas. Clearly and distinctly these partisans put forward their doctrine of unequivocal opposition to slavery in the Territories of the United States. They nominated as the candidate of the new People's, or Republican party, John Charles Frémont, of California, known popularly as the "Pathfinder of the Rockies." Meanwhile a considerable part of the Whigs and many Democrats, anxious to avoid or ignore the question of slavery formed themselves into a secret organization which became a political party under the name of the Know-Nothings.* The Democratic doctrine was the support of the principles of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, or what was known as Squatter or Popular Sovereignty. The Republicans boldly announced opposition to slavery in the Territories as their fundamental doctrine. The Know-Nothing party set up its banner inscribed with opposition to foreign influence in the United States. The latter movement at one time became formidable, and several of the Northern States were clearly carried by the Know-Nothings in the elections of 1854-55. As the candidate of this party, Millard Fillmore, of New York, was nominated for the Presidency. The election followed, and a large majority decided in favor of Buchanan and the Democratic party. The choice for Vice-Presidency fell on John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky. Frémont, however, obtained a surprisingly large vote in the Northern States, and but for the strong diversion made by the Know-Nothings his election had been probable.

James Buchanan was a native of Pennsylvania, born on the 13th of April, 1791. He was the last of American Presidents whose birth dated back to the eighteenth century. He was educated for the law. In his fortieth year he had risen to such reputation as to be appointed by President Jackson minister to St. Petersburg. Afterwards he was a Senator of the United States, and from that position was made Secretary of State under Polk. In 1853 he was appointed minister to Great Britain, and held that position at the time of his nomination to the Presidency. On his accession to office he gave the position of Secretary of State to General Lewis Cass, of Michigan.

*The origin of this apparently absurd name is found in a part of the pledge which the members took on initiation. They promised to *know nothing* but the Union, and to *know nothing* but "America for Americans."

THE DRED SCOTT DECISION.

It was in March of 1857, immediately after the beginning of the new administration, that the celebrated Dred Scott Decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States. Dred Scott was a negro who had been held as a slave by a certain Dr. Emerson, of Missouri. In course of time Emerson removed first to Rock Island, Illinois, and afterwards to Fort Snelling, Minnesota, taking Scott with him as a slave. At the latter place Scott and a negro woman who had been bought by Emerson were married. Two children were born of the marriage and then the whole family were taken back to St. Louis and sold as slaves. Dred Scott hereupon brought suit for his freedom.

The cause was tried successively in the Circuit and Supreme Courts of Missouri, and in May of 1854 was appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. There the matter lay for about three years. After the Democratic triumph of 1856, however, and the accession of Buchanan a decision was at once rendered. Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, speaking for the court, decided that negroes, whether free or slave, *were not citizens of the United States and that they could not become such by any process known to the Constitution*; that under the laws of the United States a negro could neither sue nor be sued and that therefore the court had no jurisdiction of Dred Scott's cause; that the slave was to be regarded simply as a personal chattel; that the Constitution gave to the slave-holders the rights of removing to or through any State or Territory with his slaves and of returning at his will with them to a State where slavery was recognized by law; and that therefore the Missouri Compromise of 1820, as well as the compromise measures of 1850, was unconstitutional and void.

In these extraordinary opinions—as sound legally as they were profoundly immoral—six associate justices of the Supreme Bench—Wayne, Nelson, Grier, Daniel, Campbell and Catron—concurred, while two associates—McLean and Curtis—dissented. The decision gave great satisfaction to the ultra-slave-holding sentiments of the South and chimed in agreeably with the doctrine of squatter sovereignty. In the North, however, great excitement was produced and thousands of indignant comments and much bitter opposition were provoked by the dictum of the court.

One of the provisions of the Omnibus Bill of 1850 related to the organization of Utah Territory. That remote, transmontane region was occupied almost exclusively by the Mormons or Latter-Day Saints. By their exile from Illinois and Missouri they had virtually escaped from the jurisdiction of the United States and had planted themselves in what they supposed to be an inaccessible country. At length an attempt was made to extend the American judicial system over the Territory. Thus far Brigham Young, the Mormon Prophet, had as the head of the theocracy governed as he would. The community of Mormons was organized on a plan very different from that existing in other Territories and many usages, especially polygamy, had grown up in Utah which were deemed repugnant to the laws of the United States.

In 1857 a Federal judge was sent to preside in the Territory. He was resisted, insulted and driven violently from the seat of justice. His associate officials were in like manner expelled from the Territory. Utah became a scene of terror for all officers of the United States and so-called "Gentiles." The Mormons, however, claimed in justification of their course that the officers who had been sent out to govern them were of so low a character as to command no respect.

The government deemed this excuse insufficient. Alfred Cumming, Superintendent of Indian Affairs on the upper Missouri, was sent to Utah to supersede Brigham Young in authority. Delana R. Eckels, of Indiana, was appointed Chief Justice of the Territory, and

an army of twenty-five hundred men was sent to Utah to put down lawlessness by force.

The Mormons were charged with the perpetration of many crimes, committed generally by an organized band called Danites who were known as the Avenging Angels of the Church. These were accused of murdering a large band of emigrants at a place in southern Utah called Mountain Meadows. The massacre was perpetrated under the leadership of John D. Lee, who suffered the supreme penalty of the law for his crime.

JOHNSTON'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST THE MORMONS.

Notwithstanding the show of force that was made by the military, Young and the Mormon elders were little disposed to yield. The antagonism of the people of the Territory was aroused to the last pitch. They remembered what their fathers had suffered by banishment and persecution, and could but regard this extension of governmental authority over them as a renewal and aggravation of the former injustice and cruelties to which they had been subjected. The American army was denounced as a horde of barbarians. In September of 1867 the national forces reached the Territory, and on the 6th of October a band of Mormon rangers attacked and destroyed most of the supply trains of the army. Winter came on, and the Federal forces, under command of Albert Sydney Johnston, were obliged to find quarters on Black's Fork, near Fort Bridges.

Meanwhile Thomas L. Kane, of Pennsylvania, was sent out by the President with conciliatory letters to the Mormon authorities. Kane went around by way of California, reached Utah in the spring of 1858, and soon succeeded in bringing about an understanding between Governor Cumming and the Mormons. Next came Governor Powell, of Kentucky, and Major McCulloch, of Texas, bringing from the President a proclamation of pardon to all who would submit to the national authority. The Mormons generally accepted the overtures. The army of the United States marched to Salt Lake City, but was quartered at Camp Floyd, forty miles distant. Here the Federal forces remained until order was restored, and in May of 1860, were withdrawn from the Territory.

The year 1858 became memorable in the history of our country, and indeed of all nations, for the laying of the first telegraphic cable across the Atlantic Ocean. On the 5th of August in this year the great enterprise was successfully completed. The work was projected and brought to an auspicious end most largely by the energy and genius of Cyrus W. Field, a wealthy merchant of New York City.

In this year the Territory of Minnesota was organized and admitted into the Union. The area of the new State was a little more than eighty-one thousand square miles, and its population about a hundred and fifty thousand. In 1859 Oregon, the thirty-third member of the Union and second of the Pacific States, was admitted. The new commonwealth brought a population of forty-eight thousand and an area of eighty thousand square miles. It was on the 4th of March, in this year, that General Sam Houston, of Texas, bade adieu to the Senate of the United States and retired to private life. His career had been one of the most remarkable in American history. His genius was undoubted and his character of so resolute a frame that in the last years of his life the secession storm that prevailed in Texas could not sweep him from his feet or bear him away from his devotion to the Union.

The year 1859 felt a shadow from the death of the illustrious Washington Irving. He had gained a proud rank in American letters. The powers of his genius had been devoted to the creation for his native land of a literary rank among the nations. His name had become a household word in Europe. He it was, first of all, who succeeded in wringing from the proscriptive reviews of England and Scotland an acknowledgment of the power and originality of American genius.

BOOK FOURTH.

Epoch of War and Greatness.

CHAPTER XXIV.

ANTECEDENTS OF THE CIVIL WAR.



HERE approach the great tragedy of American history. We find ourselves in the dawn of that epoch which was destined to bring insurrection, blood and devastation in its train. Let us, in the first place, note with clearness some of the antecedents and causes which led to the tremendous conflict now impending over the American Republic.

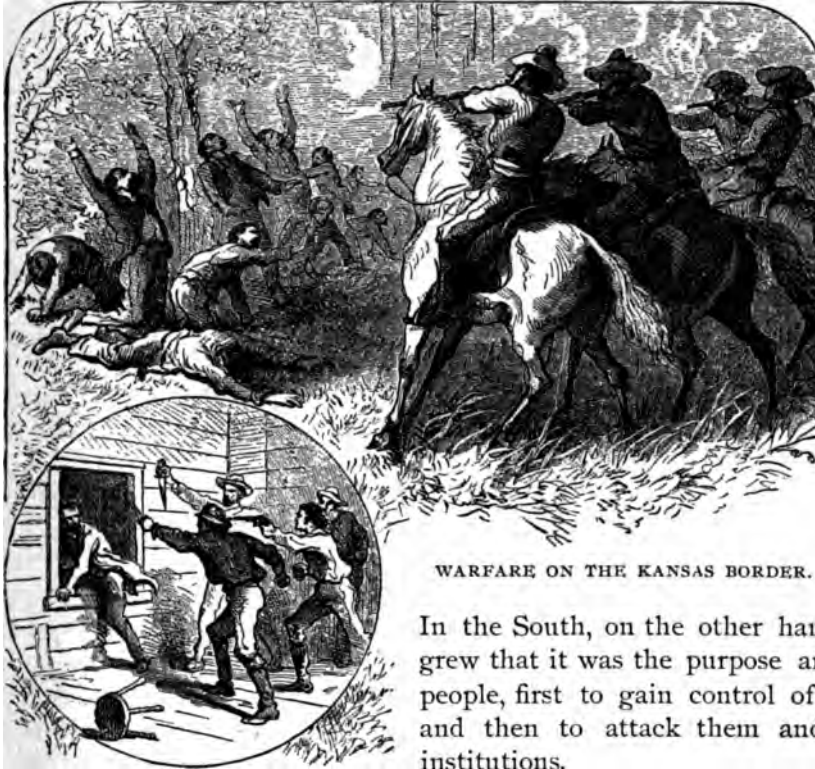
It was believed by the pro-slavery party and the Democratic administration, extending from 1856 to 1860, that the Dred Scott decision—puny, paper manifesto as it was—would allay the troubled waters and produce a perpetual calm. On the contrary that judicial edict came as a torch among combustibles.

Some of the Free States proceeded to pass what were called Personal Liberty Bills, the object of which was to thwart the operation of the Fugitive Slave Law. A deep seated and unquenchable animosity towards the slavery propagandists was kindled throughout the North and many of the greatest and most enlightened Americans set themselves in relentless hostility, not only to the extension of slavery, but to the institution itself.

Next came the John Brown insurrection of 1859. Old John Brown, of Osawatimie, deliberately devised a scheme for a servile war and revolution throughout the South. He had been one of the leaders of the Free-State militia in the border war in Kansas. He was an enthusiast, fearless, persistent, determined to do or to die, a religious fanatic who took no counsel of danger or defeat. With a party of twenty-one men like himself, but not his equals, he made a sudden descent out of Pennsylvania on the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, captured the place and held his ground for nearly two days. The militia of Virginia and then the national troops were called out to suppress the revolt. Thirteen of Brown's men were killed. Two made their escape and the rest were captured. The leader and his six companions were given over to the authorities of Virginia, tried, condemned and hanged. The event was one which to the present day excites the keenest interest and

liveliest controversy. Nor may it be easily decided whether an adventurer—supposing himself under the direction of the Higher Law—may in such a manner attack the abuses of a State and whether, if he do, he strikes the blow in the character of a fool and madman or as the hero and protagonist of a new era.

Ever and anon the controversy in Kansas broke out with added heat. There the Free-Soil party gradually gained the upper hand. It became evident that slavery would be



WARFARE ON THE KANSAS BORDER.

In the South, on the other hand, the opposing *conviction* grew that it was the purpose and scheme of the Northern people, first to gain control of the national government and then to attack them and their peculiar domestic institutions.

THE NOMINATING CONVENTIONS OF 1860.

Such was the fretful and alarming condition of affairs when the administration of Buchanan drew to a close. The nineteenth Presidential election was at hand. The Free-Soil party had now become powerfully organic under the name Republican. A great convention of the delegates of that party was held in Chicago and Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, was nominated for the Presidency. The platform of principles declared opposition to the *extension* of slavery as the one vital issue. In April of 1860 the Democratic convention assembled at Charleston, South Carolina, but no sooner had the body convened than its utter distraction of counsels was apparent. The delegates were divided on the slavery question, and after much debating and wrangling the party was disrupted. The delegates from the South, unable to obtain a distinct endorsement of their views in the platform of the party, and seeing that the Northern wing was determined to nominate Senator Douglas, withdrew from the convention. The remainder, including most of the delegates from the North, continued in session, balloted for awhile for a candidate, and on the 3d of May adjourned to meet at a later date in Baltimore.

The second convention was held on the 18th of June, according to appointment. The Northern delegates reassembled and chose Stephen A. Douglas as their standard-bearer.

finally interdicted in the new State. But a question had now been opened between the North and the South which was not to close except by the workings of the greatest tragedy of modern times. Among the Northern people anti-slavery sentiments spread and became intense. It became a *conviction* that the institution of slavery must now be curbed with a strong hand. In the minds of the younger people that institution began to have the feature of a demon.

The seceding Southern delegates adjourned first to Richmond, and afterwards to Baltimore, where they met on the 28th of June and nominated John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. The American, or Know-Nothing party, which had now lost much of its distinctive character, took the name of Constitutional Unionists, met in convention, and chose John Bell, of Tennessee, as its candidate for the Presidency. Thus were four political standards raised in the field, and the excitement went through the country like a storm.

In the political conflict that ensued the Republicans gained much by their compactness and the distinctness of their utterances on the question of slavery. Most of the old



JOHN BROWN'S FORT AND HARPER'S FERRY.

- Abolitionists cast in their fortunes with the Republican party and the support of Lincoln. The result was the triumphant election of that remarkable man by the votes of nearly all the Northern States. The votes of the Southern States were for the most part given to Breckinridge. The States of Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee cast their thirty-nine ballots for Bell. Douglas received a large popular but small electoral support. His adherents were scattered through all the States, without concentration in any. Thus after controlling the destinies of the republic for sixty years, with only temporary breaks in 1840 and 1848, the Democratic party was overthrown and driven from the field.

But what was the result? The Southern leaders had declared already that the election of Lincoln by the votes of the Northern States would be just cause for a dissolution of the Union. Threats to secede had been freely indulged in the Southern States, but in the

North such expressions were regarded as mere political bravado, made up of sound and fury, signifying nothing. It was believed that no actual purpose of rebellion existed among the people of the South. The threats that were indulged in rather instigated than deterred



JOHN BROWN BESIEGED AT HARPER'S FERRY.

the Republicans of the populous North from voting according to their political convictions. They crowded to the polls and their favorite was elected by a plurality of the electoral votes.

For the time, however, the government remained under control of the Douglas Democracy. A majority of the members of the cabinet and a large number of Senators and Representatives belonged to the Breckinridge party. These had imbibed from their proslavery education and local attachments all the fire-eating proclivities of the extreme South. Such members of Congress began openly to advocate in the Senate and House of Representatives the doctrine of secession as a legitimate remedy for the election of Lincoln. With the close of the current administration a climax was reached. With the ensuing spring all the departments of the government were to pass into the hands of the Republican party. The times were full of passion, animosity and rashness.

SECESSION OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

At this juncture the Southern leaders perceived that as affairs then stood the dismemberment of the Union was possible, but that with the inauguration of Lincoln and the establishment of Republican rule such a movement would probably be thwarted and become an impossibility. Great was the embarrassment of the President. He was not himself a disunionist. In argument he denied the right of a State to secede; but at the same time he declared himself not armed with Constitutional power to prevent by force the secession of a sovereign State. His attitude thus favored the plans of the secession party. Buchanan's theory of government was sufficient of itself to paralyze the remaining energies of the executive and to make him helpless in the presence of the great emergency. It was with wisdom and craft, therefore, on the part of the Southern leaders that the interval between the November election of 1860 and the inauguration of Lincoln was seized as the opportune moment for the dissolution of the Union.

The event showed that the train had already been laid for the impending catastrophe. The actual work of secession broke out in South Carolina. The disunion proclivities of that State, after a slumber of thirty years, burst suddenly forth in flame and fire. On the 17th of December, 1860, a convention of delegates chosen by the people of South Carolina met at Charleston, and after three days of fiery discussion passed a resolution that the union hitherto existing between South Carolina and the other States under the name of the United States of America was dissolved. It was a step of fearful importance, portending war and universal discord.

The action of South Carolina was contagious. Disunion spread like an insanity among



STONEWALL JACKSON, AT THE BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

the Southern people. Within a short time the cotton-growing States had given themselves wholly to the cause of dissolution. By the 1st of February, 1861, six other States—Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas—had passed ordinances of secession. Nearly all the Senators and Representatives of those States resigned their seats in Congress, returned to the South, and threw their influence with the disunion cause.

Little opposition was manifested to the movement. Those who opposed disunion did not attend the State conventions, and the voice of opposition was drowned in the universal clamor. The secession leaders rushed together, carrying with them the enthusiastic support of the planters and the young politicians of the South. In some instances a considerable minority vote was cast against disunion. A few speakers attempted, but without success, to stem the secession tide. The course of Alexander H. Stephens, afterwards Vice-President of the Confederate States, was peculiar. In the Georgia convention he openly and powerfully opposed the secession of his State.

At the same time he defended the theory of secession, advocated State sovereignty, declared his purpose to abide by the decision of Georgia, but at the same time spoke against the secession ordinance on the ground that the measure was impolitic, unwise and likely to be disastrous in its results. Other prominent men in different parts of the South held the same view, but the majority prevailed and secession was readily and enthusiastically accomplished.



ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

FORMATION OF THE NEW CONFEDERACY.

With disunion came the formation of a new government. On the 4th of February, 1861, delegates from six of the seceded States assembled at Montgomery, Alabama, and proceeded to the establishment of a government under the name of the Confederate States of America. On the 8th of the month the organization was completed by the election of Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as provisional President, and Alexander H. Stephens as Vice-President. Thus in the

heart of the South a rival government to that of the United States was speedily and effectively organized.

On the same day of the meeting of the Confederate Congress at Montgomery a Peace Conference, so-called, assembled at Washington City. It was a fruitless and bootless attempt to stay the hurricane. Delegates from twenty-one States were present and the optimists who composed the body still dreamed of peace. They busied themselves with preparing certain pacific and compromising amendments to the Constitution of the United States. These were promptly laid before Congress; but that body, freshly gathered from the people and inspired with the rising antagonism to the course of the Southern leaders, gave little heed to the recommendations. The Peace Conference was permitted to disperse without practical results.

Through all this excitement and upheaval Buchanan remained in the Presidency. The Democratic party still held control of the government. The country seemed on the verge of ruin. It appeared that the Ship of State was steered directly for the rocks. The Executive department was paralyzed. The President in the midst of his dismay and despair went about the halls of the White House wringing his hands. The army of the United States had been intentionally sent in detachments to remote frontiers. The fleet was scattered in distant seas. The credit of the nation had sunk so low that the government was unable to borrow funds for current emergencies at twelve per cent.

Meanwhile the Southern leaders were having everything according to their counsel. All things seemed for the time to favor them in the work of disruption. They proceeded to seize public properties, arsenals, and as many as possible of the government posts. Along the Atlantic coast only four of the national ports were for the present saved from capture.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

These were Forts Sumter and Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, and Fortress Monroe, in the Chesapeake. All the other naval ports and posts in the seceded States were seized by the Confederate authorities, even before the organization of their government. Meanwhile the local warfare in far-off Kansas continued to break out at fitful intervals, but the Free-State party gained at length a complete ascendancy and the early admission of Kansas into the Union with two additional Republican Senators was a foregone conclusion.

At the beginning of 1861 the President, rousing himself for a moment made a feeble attempt to reinforce and provision the garrison of Fort Sumter. The steamer *Star of the West* was sent thither with supplies and men; but the Confederates were informed beforehand of all that was done and they found no trouble in defeating the enterprise. As the steamer approached the harbor of Charleston, she was fired on by a Confederate battery and compelled to stand off. Thus in gloom and grief and the upheavals of revolution did the administration of James Buchanan draw to a close. Such was the dreadful condition of

affairs that it was deemed prudent for the new President to reach the capital *in the night* and without recognition. For the first time in the history of the nation the chief magistrate of the republic slipped into Washington City in the darkness as a means of personal safety!

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Abraham Lincoln was, however, the man for the hour and the epoch. He had been thrown to the front by those processes which in the aggregate look so much like Providence. The new executive, sixteenth President of the United States, was a Kentuckian by birth, born in the county Larue, on the 12th of February, 1809. His ancestors were from Rockingham county, Virginia. The childhood of Lincoln was passed in utter obscurity. The family were backwoods people of the lowest order. In 1816 Thomas Lincoln, the father of Abraham, removed to Spencer county, Indiana, and built a cabin in the woods, near the present village of Gentryville. At sixteen we find the future President managing a ferry across the Ohio—a service for which he received six dollars a month. He managed to obtain in all about one year's schooling. In the year of his majority, his father's family removed to the north fork of the Sangamon, ten miles west of Decatur, Illinois. Here another log-house was built, and here Abraham Lincoln began for himself the hard battle of life.



LINCOLN'S EARLY HOME IN ILLINOIS.

"The uncleared forest, the unbroken soil,
The iron bark that turns the lumberer's axe;
The rapid that o'erbears the boatman's toil,
The prairie, hiding the mazed wanderer's tracks;
The ambushed Indian, and the prowling bear,—
Such were the needs that helped his youth to train.
Rough culture; but such trees large fruit may bear,
If but their stocks be of right girth and grain."

It were long to tell the story of the hardships and struggles through which young Lincoln passed before he gained the attention of his fellowmen and rose to distinction. He served as a captain in the Black Hawk War, and afterwards became a lawyer, in which profession his amazing common sense rather than erudition brought him success. In 1849 he was elected to Congress, where he distinguished himself as a humorous speaker. It was in 1858 when a candidate for the office of United States Senator from Illinois, that he first revealed, in his great debates with Senator Douglas, the full scope of his originality and genius. Two years after this combat of giants he was nominated and elected to the Presidency. At the time of his inauguration he had entered his fifty-third year. He delivered on that occasion a carefully prepared address declaring his fixed purpose to uphold the Constitution and preserve the integrity of the Union. At the first, it was his policy to ignore the action of the seceded States as a thing in itself null, void and of no effect.

At the head of the new cabinet was placed William H. Seward, of New York, as Secretary of State. Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, was appointed Secretary of the Treasury, and Simon Cameron, Secretary of War; but the latter was soon succeeded by Edwin M. Stanton. The department of the navy was intrusted to Gideon Wells. In his inaugural address and first official papers the President distinctly outlined his policy, which was in

brief to repossess the forts, arsenals and public property which had been seized by the Confederates, and to reestablish the authority of the government in all parts of the Union.

Now it was that military preparations and movements were visible at the national capital. There was the portent of war. On the 12th of March, 1861, certain commissioners from the seceded States sought to obtain from the Government a recognition of their independence; but the negotiations were, of course, unsuccessful. Then came the second attempt to reinforce the garrison of Fort Sumter, and hard upon that act followed the beginning of hostilities.

BOMBARDMENT OF FORT SUMTER.

The defenses in Charleston harbor were held at this time by a Federal garrison of seventy-nine men, under command of Major Robert Anderson. Owing to the feebleness of

his force, he abandoned Fort Moultrie, and took up his position in Fort Sumter. By this time Charleston was swarming with Confederate volunteers, and powerful batteries were built around the harbor bearing on Fort Sumter. When it was ascertained that the Federal Government was about to reinforce the forts, the authorities of the Confederate States determined to anticipate the movement by compelling Anderson to surrender.

To this end General G. T. Beauregard, com-



PRESIDENT LINCOLN'S FIRST CABINET.

mandant of Charleston, sent a flag to Major Anderson, demanding the evacuation of the fort. The Major replied that he should hold the fort and defend his flag. On the following morning, April 12th, 1861, at half-past four o'clock the first gun of the great war was discharged from a Confederate battery. A terrific bombardment of thirty-four hours duration followed. Fort Sumter was beaten into ruins and obliged to capitulate. The honors of war were granted to Anderson and his men, who had made a brave and obstinate

resistance. The sequel showed that no lives were lost either in the fort or on the shore. The Confederates, by the complete success of their initial onset, obtained control of Charleston harbor.

The effect, however, bore hard on the aggressors. The news of the capture of Sumter spread through the country like a flame of fire.

Through the crooked lane,
Through dashes and flashes of rain,
The news flew out to the country wide
Of the cannon-shot in Sumter's side,
And the crowds at the meeting-place
Had the fire of anger in every face!

There had been on the part of the people a vague expectation of violence, but the actual shock came like a thunder peal. The towns became gorged with excited crowds eager to gather tidings and comment on the outbreak of war. Gray-haired men talked gravely of the deed that was done, and prophesied its consequences. The general effect of the assault on Sumter was to consolidate opinion in both the North and the South. On either side the sentiments of the people were crystallized into a firmly set antagonism, which was only to be broken by the shock of battle.



ATTACK ON FORT SUMTER FROM MORRIS ISLAND.

With the fall of Sumter, President Lincoln immediately issued a call for seventy-five thousand volunteers, to serve three months in the overthrow of the secession movement. Two days later Virginia seceded from the Union. On the 6th of May, Arkansas followed, and then North Carolina, on the 20th of the same month. In Tennessee, particularly in East Tennessee, there was a powerful opposition to disunion, and the secession ordinance was with great difficulty forced upon the people, June 8th, 1861. In Missouri the effort of the secessionists to withdraw from the Union precipitated civil war, and in Kentucky the authorities issued a proclamation of neutrality. In Maryland the people divided into hostile parties, the disunion sentiment being preponderant.

FIRST BLOOD SHED IN THE WAR FOR THE UNION.

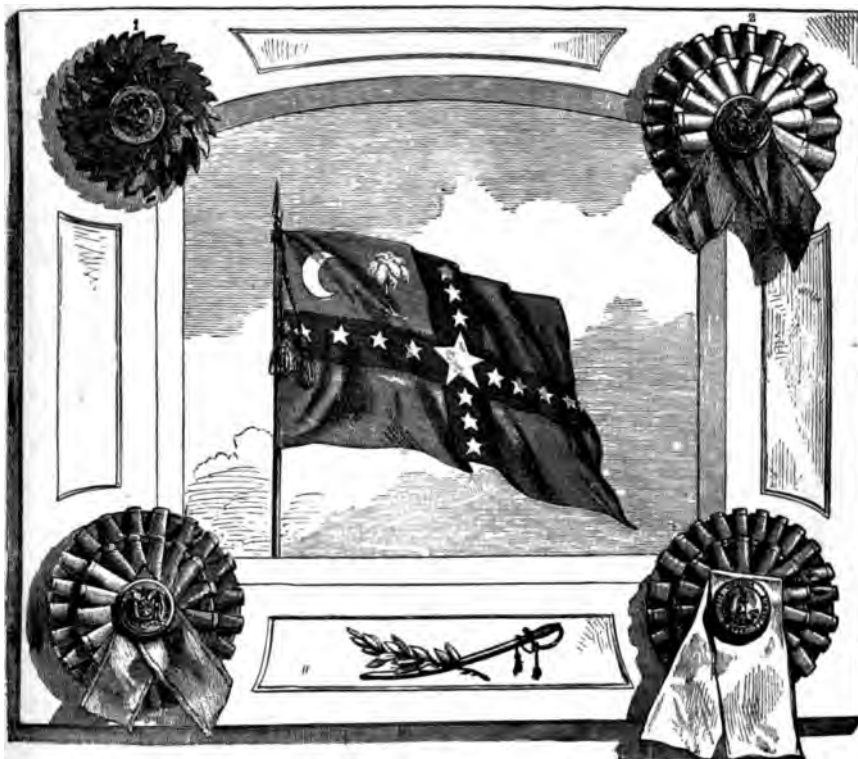
The North responded promptly to the call of the President. Volunteers at once began to march for Washington. On the 19th of April, when the first regiments of Massachusetts men were passing through Baltimore they were fired upon by the citizens and three men were killed. This was the first bloodshed of the war. On the day before this event a body of Confederates advanced on Harper's Ferry, to capture the armory at that place. The

officer in command hastily destroyed a portion of the vast magazines and then escaped into Pennsylvania. On the 20th of April a company of Virginians attacked the great navy yard at Norfolk. The officers fired the buildings and ships, spiked the guns and withdrew. The Confederates took possession and recovered many of the guns and vessels, turning them in after time against the Government.

Virginia soon swarmed with volunteers from the South and it was not long until Washington City was in imminent danger of capture. The National Government and the great communities of the Northern States were astounded at the vehement energy displayed by the Confederates. The first duty of the administration was to secure the Capital. On the 3d of May the President issued a new call for men, setting the number at eighty-three thousand

and the term of service at three years or during the war. A fleet was equipped and sent forth to blockade the Southern ports. On every side was heard the note of preparation. The spirit of the people both North and South was thoroughly aroused and a great war thundered in the horizon.

Meanwhile the Confederate Congress adjourned from Montgomery to meet on the 20th of July, at Richmond, which was chosen as the capital of the Confederacy. To that place had already come Jefferson



SOVEREIGNTY FLAG OF SOUTH CAROLINA—UNION COCKADES ; AND COCKADES OF SOUTH CAROLINA, VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.

Davis and the officers of his Cabinet. There the seceded government took form and substance. The men who had its destinies in charge were capable and experienced statesmen, full of animosity and determined to win independence or perish in the conflict. So stood the antagonistic powers at the beginning of summer, 1861. It was now evident to all men—slow indeed had they been to believe it—that one of the greatest conflicts of modern times was impending over the United States. What, then, were the causes which produced the Great Rebellion of 1861 and plunged the country into a ruinous and bloody civil war?

The first and most general of these causes was *the different construction put upon the national Constitution* by the people of the North and the South. A difference had always existed as to how that instrument should be understood and interpreted. The question had respect to the relation between the States and the general Government. One party held that under the Constitution the Union of the States is indissoluble ; that the sovereignty of

the nation is lodged in the central Government ; that the States are subordinate thereto ; that the constitutional acts of Congress are binding on the States ; that the highest allegiance of the citizen is due to the general Government, not to his State ; and that all attempts at nullification and disunion are in their nature disloyal and treasonable.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE CONSTITUTION BY DISUNIONISTS.

The disunionists, on the other hand, held that the national Constitution is a compact among sovereign States ; that these States constitute a Confederacy, or what the Germans call *Staatenbund* ; that for certain reasons the Union may be dissolved by the States ; that the sovereignty of the nation is lodged in the individual States and not in a central government ; that Congress can exercise no other than delegated powers ; that a State feeling aggrieved may annul an act of Congress so far as itself is concerned ; that the highest allegiance of the citizen is due to his own State and afterwards in a secondary sense to the general Government ; and that acts of nullification and disunion are justifiable, revolutionary and honorable. The theory was, in brief, that the Constitution itself provided that the States under the Constitution might abrogate the Constitution as it related to themselves and thereby dissolve the Union.



MASSACHUSETTS TROOPS ATTACKED IN THE STREETS
OF BALTIMORE.

The issue thus stated and existent in the United States was as serious and portentous as any that ever threatened the peace of a nation. It struck into the very vitals of the Government. It threatened to undo the whole civil structure of the United States. The question had existed from the foundation of the Government. For a long time the parties who disputed about the meaning of the Constitution were scattered in various sections. In our earlier history the doctrine of State sovereignty had been most advocated in New England. It was there that the greatest suspicion of the Union existed. With the rise of the tariff question the local position of the parties was shifted and reversed. The tariff—a Congressional measure—favored the Eastern States at the expense of the South. Therefore the people of New England, and ultimately of the greater part of the North, passed over to the advocacy of national sovereignty, while the people of the South espoused the doctrine of State Rights. As early as 1831 the right of a State to nullify an act of Congress was openly advocated in South Carolina and by her greatest statesman in the Senate of the United States. The belief in State sovereignty became more and more prevalent in the South, less and less prevalent in the North. Such was the origin of sectional parties in the country.

VITAL ISSUES IN CONTENTION.

The second general cause of the civil war was *the different systems of labor in the North and the South*. It was in a word the question of slavery. Possibly, indeed, this cause ought to be stated first, as it underlay ultimately even the dispute about the Constitution

and the meaning of that instrument. In the South labor had tended naturally to agricultural production ; in the East and North, to manufactures and commerce. In the South slavery existed. In the East and North slavery *had* existed, but had passed away. In the former section the laborers were bondmen, property, slaves ; in the latter, free men, citizens, voters. In the South the theory was that capital is the owner of labor ; in the North, that both labor and capital are free. The abolition of slavery in the Eastern and Middle States had been easily effected because of the unprofitableness of that form of labor. In the five great States formed out of the territory northwest of the River Ohio slavery had been excluded by the Jeffersonian ordinance of 1787. There was thus a dividing line through the Union. On the one side there was slavery ; on the other, free labor. A powerful antagonism existed on this account between the two sections, and the discord was aggravated by several subordinate causes.

Among these may be mentioned, first of all, *the invention of the cotton-gin*. In 1793 Eli Whitney, of Massachusetts, fresh from college, went to Georgia as a school teacher, and



HORRORS OF THE FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

resided with the family of Mrs. Greene, widow of General Nathaniel Greene of the Revolution. While there he became much interested in the difficult process of picking cotton by hand, that is, separating the seed from the fibre. So tedious was the process that the production of upland cotton was nearly profitless. The cotton plant grew well in many of the Southern States, but the production was rendered of no effect by the amount of labor required to prepare the product for the market. Whitney, with the inventive curiosity of his race, succeeded in constructing a gin which astonished the beholder by the rapidity and excellence of its work. Cotton in the seed was separated

to perfection and with great facility by the machine. Cotton suddenly became the most profitable of all the staples of the South. The industry of the cotton-producing States was revolutionized. Whitney obtained patents on his invention, but the greed for obtaining and using his machine was so great that no court could or would protect him in his rights. Before the Rebellion of 1861 it was estimated that the cotton-gin had added an aggregate of a billion dollars to the revenues of the Southern States. Just in proportion to the increased profitableness of cotton slave labor became important, slaves valuable, and the system of slavery a fixed and deep-rooted institution.

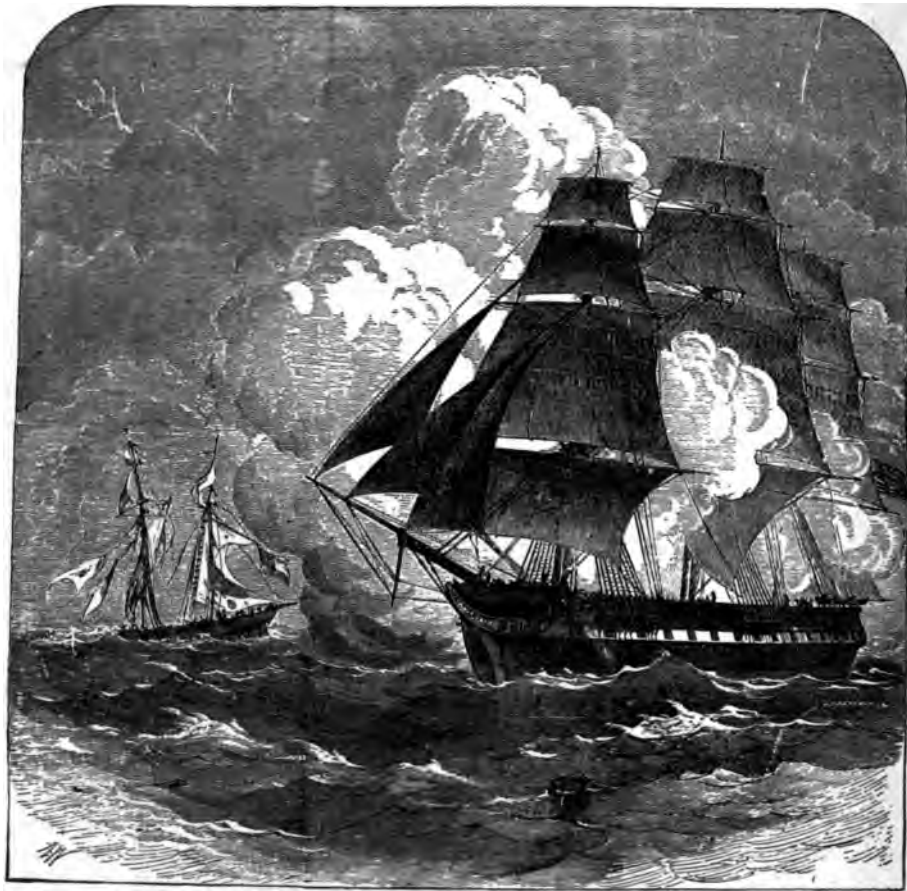
Slave-ownership was thus imbedded in Southern society. The separation between the laboring and the non-laboring class was not only a separation of race, but it was a separation of *condition*. The condition had become hereditary. Slavery came to be regarded as a natural, rightful and necessary part of the best social organization in the world. Seeing themselves lifted above the servile class, the slaveholders came to look upon the system of free labor and the free laborers of the North with contempt.

The reader will be able in these antecedents to discover the bottom reasons of the several crises through which the nation had already passed. The slavery question became a menace to all politics and statesmanship. The danger of disunion springing from this

cause was already fully manifested in *the Missouri agitation* of 1820-21. Threats of dissolving the Union were freely and recklessly made both in the South and the North ; in the South, because of the proposed rejection of Missouri as a slave-holding State ; in the North, because of the proposed enlargement of the dominion of slavery. Henry Clay and his fellow-statesmen sought by the Missouri Compromise to remove forever the slavery issue from the politics of the country, but their success was temporary, evanescent. Lincoln himself, in the opening of his great debates with Senator Douglas, announced first of all to the nation the ultimate irreconcilability of the opposing elements in the American system. He declared that a house divided against itself cannot stand ; that the institution of slavery, to carry out the analogy, must either become universal in the United States or else by limitation be put in such a condition as to lead to its ultimate extinction.

THE TARIFF CHASM BETWEEN AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURE.

Returning to the historical causes of the civil war we find the next in order of time to be *the nullification acts of South Carolina*. These, like the rest, turned upon the institution of slavery and the profitableness of cotton. The Southern States had become cotton-producing ; the Eastern States had devoted their energies to manufactures. The tariff seemed to favor manufactures at the expense of the producers of raw material. Mr. Calhoun and his friends proposed to remedy the evil complained of by annulling the laws of Congress and thus forcing an abolition of the tariff. His measures failed, but another compromise was found necessary in order to allay the animosities which had been awakened.



U. S. FRIGATE ST. LAWRENCE SINKING THE CONFEDERATE PRIVATEER PETREL, IN CHARLESTON HARBOR, AUGUST 4, 1861.

The annexation of Texas was the next step in the great evolution leading to disunion and war. With that event came a tremendous enlargement of the domain of slavery and the reawakening of the agitation. Those who opposed the Mexican War did so not so much

because of the injustice of the conflict as because of the fact that thereby the area of slave territory would be vastly extended. Next, in 1854, came the passage of *the Kansas-Nebraska Bill*. The Missouri Compromise was repealed, and the whole question opened anew. By this time the character and civilization of the Northern and Southern people had become widely different. A much more general cause of the Civil War was *the want of intercourse between the people of the North and the South*. Obeying those cosmic laws by which the population of the earth has always been distributed, the people west of the Alleghanies had been carried to their destinations in channels flowing from the east to the west—never from the north to the south. The artificial contrivances of civilization had been arranged along the same lines. The great railroads and thoroughfares ran east and west. All migrations had been back and forth in the same course. Between the North and the South there had been only a modicum of travel and interchange of opinion. The people of the two sections had become more unacquainted than they were even at the time of the Revolution. The inhabitants of the North and the South, without intending it, had become estranged, jealous, suspicious. They misrepresented each other's beliefs and purposes. They suspected each other of dishonesty and ill-will. Before the outbreak of the war, the people of the two sections had come to look upon each other almost in the light of different nationalities.

EFFECTS OF SECTIONAL LITERATURE AND DEMAGOGUES.

Still a fourth cause may be found in *the publication and influence of sectional books and writings*. During the twenty years preceding the war many works were published both in the North and the South whose popularity depended wholly or in part on the animosity and distrust existing between the two sections. Such books were frequently filled with ridicule and falsehood. The manners and customs, the language and beliefs of one section were held up to the contempt and scorn of the people of the other section. The minds of all classes, especially of the young, were thus prejudiced and poisoned. In the North the belief was fostered that the South was given up to inhumanity, ignorance and barbarism, while in the South the opinion prevailed that the Northern people were a selfish race of mean, mercenary, cold-blooded Yankees.

To these antecedents must be added, in the next place, *the evil influence of demagogues*. It is the misfortune of republican governments that they many times fall under the domination of bad men. In the United States the demagogue has enjoyed special opportunities for mischief. In the sixth decade of the century American statesmanship and patriotism were at a low ebb. Ambitious and scheming men had obtained control of the political parties and made themselves leaders of public opinion. The purposes of such were selfish in the last degree. The welfare and peace of the country were put aside as of little value. In order to gain power and keep it, many unprincipled men in the South were anxious to destroy the Union, while the demagogues of the North were willing to *abuse* the Union in order to accomplish their purposes.

To all these causes must finally be added *a growing public opinion in the North against the institution of slavery itself*—a hostility inborn and inbred against human chattelhood as a fact. The conscience of the nation began to struggle, and the belief was more and more entertained that slavery was a civil and social crime *per se*, and ought to be destroyed. This opinion, this conviction, comparatively feeble at the beginning of the war, was rapidly developed, and had much to do in determining the direction and final issue of the conflict. Such in brief were the principal causes which led to the Civil War in the United States, one of the most terrible and bloody strifes of modern times.

CHAPTER XXV.

BEGINNING OF THE CONFLICT.



THE STRUGGLE now impending was between the Union under the Constitution, upheld by the Government at Washington and supported by the populous Northern States, on the one side, and the new Confederate government established at Richmond, backed by the forces of the South and the whole power of the ancient slave-holding system, on the other. The war proper may be said to have begun on the 24th of May, 1861. On that day the Union army crossed the Potomac from Washington City to Alexandria. At this time Fortress Monroe, at the mouth of the James, was held by General B. F. Butler, with twelve thousand men. In the immediate vicinity, at a place called Bethel Church, was a detachment of Confederates under command of General Magruder. On the 10th of June a body of Union troops was sent to dislodge them, and was repulsed with considerable losses. Such was the opening scene in Old Virginia.

West of the mountains the conquest of the State had been undertaken by a Union army under General George B. McClellan. In the latter part of May General Thomas A. Morris, commanding a force of Ohio and Indiana troops, advanced from Parkersburg to Grafton, and on the 3d of June attacked the Confederates at Philippi. In this fight the Federals were successful, and the Confederates retreated towards the mountains. At this juncture General McClellan arrived, assumed command, and on the 11th of July gained a victory of some importance at Rich Mountain. General Garnet, the Confederate commander, fell back to Cheat River, where he was a second time defeated and himself killed in battle.

The next combat was on the 10th of August, between General Floyd, commanding the Confederates at Camifex Ferry, on Gauley River, and the Union forces under General Rosecrans. The latter were victorious and the Confederates retreated. On the 14th of September a division of Confederates under General Robert E. Lee was defeated at Cheat Mountain, by which success the Federal authority was restored throughout West Virginia.

In the meantime General Robert Patterson marched with a Federal force from Chambersburg to retake Harper's Ferry. On the 11th of the month the division of Colonel Lewis Wallace made a sudden and successful onset upon a detachment of Confederates at Romney. Patterson crossed the Potomac with the main body, entered the Shenandoah Valley and pressed back the Confederates to Winchester. Thus far there had been only petty conflicts—the premonitory onsets and skirmishes of the great struggle. But the time had now arrived for the first real battle of the war.

After the retirement of the Confederates from West Virginia the Confederate forces of the State, commanded by General Beauregard, were concentrated at Manassas Junction, on the Orange Railroad, twenty-seven miles west of Alexandria. Another large Confederate force under General Joseph E. Johnston, lay in the Shenandoah Valley, within supporting distance of Beauregard. The Union army at Alexandria was commanded by General Irwin McDowell, and General Patterson was stationed in front of Washington to watch Johnston's movements and prevent the latter from joining Beauregard.

FIRST BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

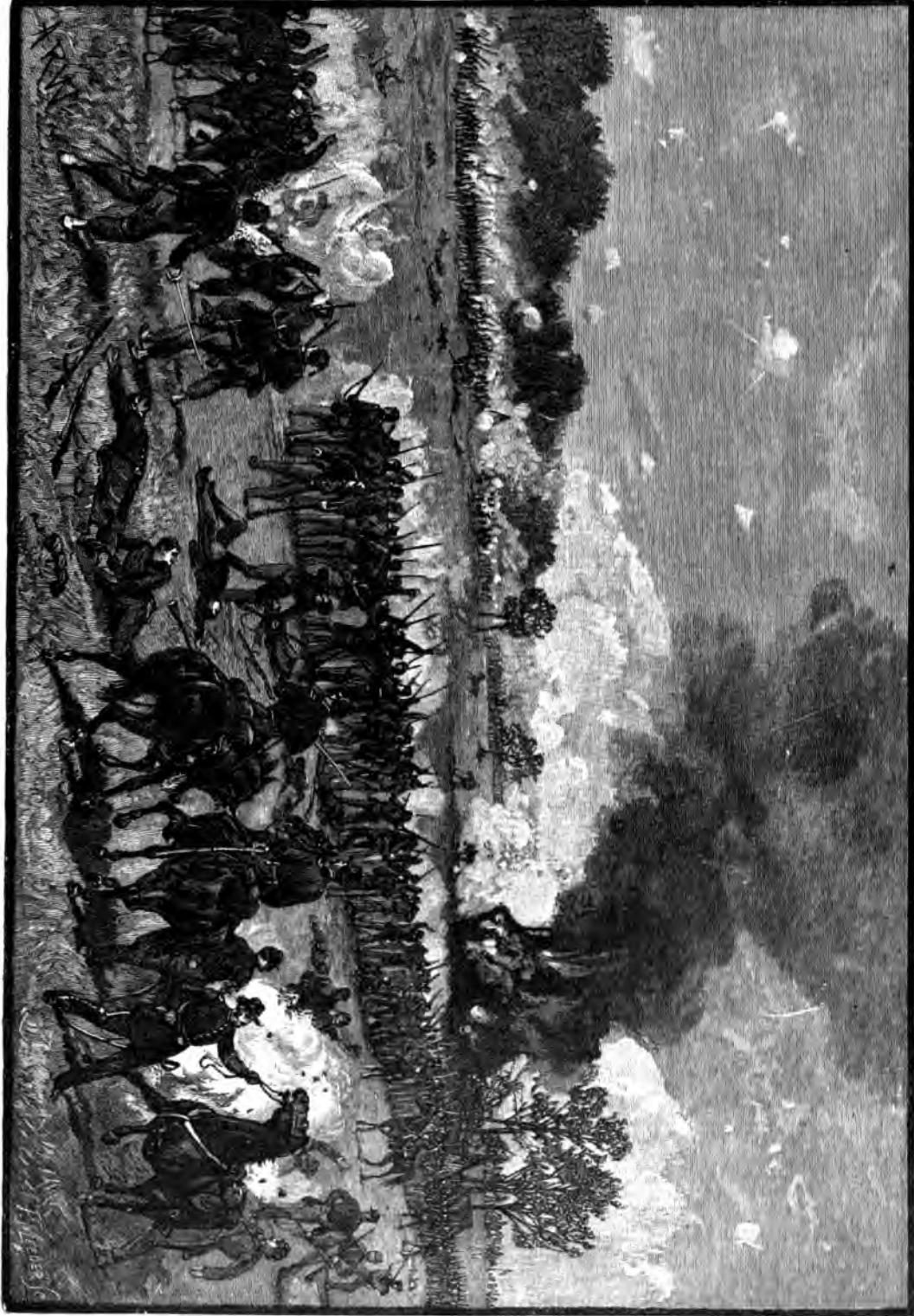
The advance of the Union army was begun on the 16th of July. Two days afterwards an unimportant engagement took place between Centreville and Bull Run. The Federals



GENERAL G. T. BEAUREGARD.

then pressed on, and on the morning of the 21st of July came upon the Confederate army strongly posted between Bull Run and Manassas Junction. Here a general battle ensued, continuing with great severity until noonday. The advantage was with the Union army, and it seemed probable that the Confederates would suffer a complete defeat; but in the crisis of the battle General Johnston arrived with nearly six thousand fresh troops from the Shenandoah Valley. The tide of victory turned immediately, and McDowell's whole army was thrown back in rout and confusion. A panic spread through the Union forces. The army had been followed out from Washington by a throng of non-combatants. Soldiers and citizens became mixed together in the retreat, and the whole mass rolled back in disorganization into the defences of Washington. The losses on both sides were great, being on the Union side 2951 and on the Confederate side 2050.

Never before in America had such numbers fallen in battle; and yet this was but the feeble introduction to the bloody, desperate and long-continued struggle which was about to ensue.



BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

Great were the chagrin and humiliation of the North and great was the exultation of the Confederates. The Federal government was with good reason alarmed for the safety of Washington City. In Richmond there were jubilation and confidence. There on the day before the battle the new Confederate government was organized. The Southern Congress assembled and into it were gathered the pride, the talent and the experience of the South. Many men of distinguished abilities were there. Jefferson Davis, the President, was a far-sighted and talented man. His experience was wide and thorough as a civilian and his reputation as a soldier, earned in the Mexican War, was enviable. He had served in both Houses of Congress and as a member of Pierce's Cabinet. His talents, character and ardent advocacy of State Rights made him the natural, if not the inevitable, leader of the Confederacy in the impending conflict with the Union.

For a brief season the disaster at Bull Run seemed to paralyze the Union cause. Military operations in the East ceased. In Missouri, however, hostilities broke out and were attended with important consequences. Missouri, though a slave-holding State, had not seceded from the Union. The convention which was called by Governor Jackson in accordance with an act of the legislature refused to pass an ordinance of secession. The Disunion party, however, was strong and aggressive. The governor was himself the leader of this party and the Disunionists were loath to give up the State.

Civil war supervened. Federal and Confederate camps were organized in many parts of the State. The Confederates captured the United States arsenal at Liberty, in Clay county, and obtained thereby supplies, arms and munitions. They then formed Camp Jackson, in the western suburbs of St. Louis, and the arsenal of that city was endangered.



DEATH OF GENERAL LYON AT WILSON'S CREEK.

At this juncture, however, Captain Lyon appeared on the scene and removed the arms and stores of St. Louis first to Alton and then to Springfield, Illinois. He then attacked Camp Jackson and broke up that rendezvous of the Confederate party.

The Confederates from Arkansas and Texas now made a rush to secure the lead mines in the southwest part of Missouri. On the 17th of June General Nathaniel Lyon encountered a Confederate force under Governor Jackson, at Booneville, and gained a decided advantage. On the 5th of July the Federals under Colonel Franz Sigel were successful in a severe engagement with Jackson's forces at Carthage. Then came the battle of Bull Run in the East. On the 10th of August

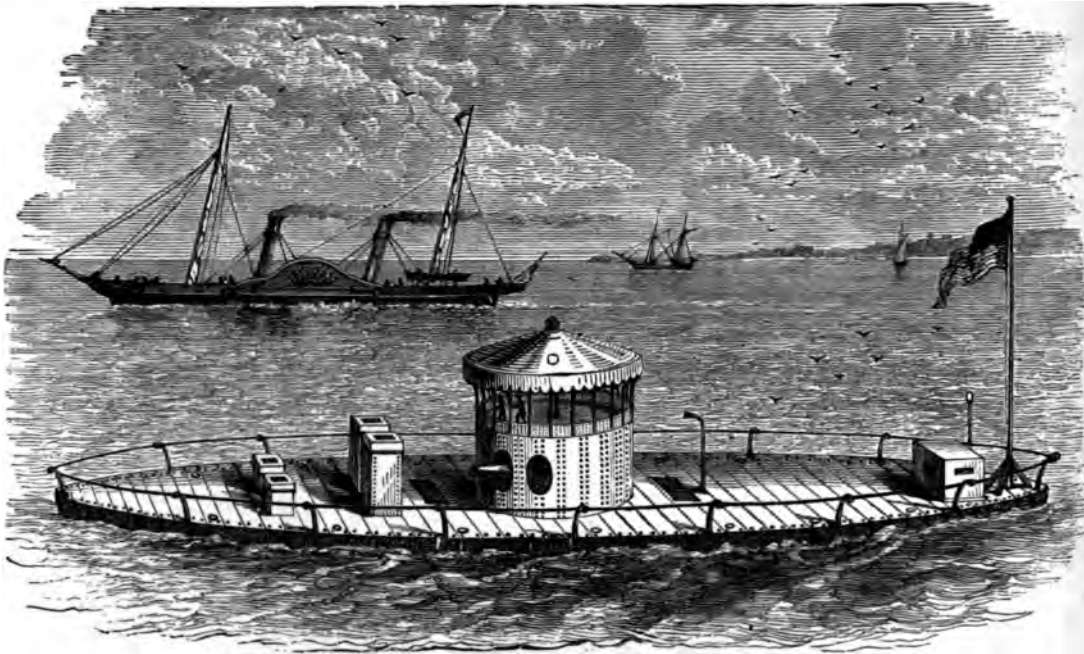
the severest encounter thus far in the West occurred at Wilson's Creek, a short distance south of Springfield, Missouri. General Lyon made a daring attack on the Confederate forces of Generals McCullough and Price. The Federals at first gained the field, but General Lyon was killed and his men retreated, the command falling to Sigel.

General Price at the head of the Confederate army pressed northward across the State to Lexington, on the Missouri River. Here was stationed a division of twenty-six hundred Federals under command of Colonel Mulligan. The fort was stubbornly defended, but

Mulligan was obliged to capitulate. Price turned to the south; the Federals rallied, and on the 16th of October Lexington was retaken. General John C. Frémont, who had been appointed to the command of all the Union forces in Missouri, followed the Confederates as far as Springfield, and was on the eve of making an attack when he was superseded by General Hunter. The latter drew back to St. Louis, where he was in turn superseded by General Henry W. Halleck. Late in the year Price fell back towards Arkansas.

BATTLE OF BELMONT.

The only remaining movement of importance was at Belmont, on the Mississippi. It will be remembered that Kentucky had declared neutrality as her policy in the war. The Confederate government, however, sent General Leonidas Pope with an army into the State, to enable the Disunion party to overbear the Unionists. Pope captured the town of Columbus and planted batteries at that place commanding the Mississippi. The Confederates



A MONITOR AND A BLOCKADE-RUNNER

gathered in force on the opposite bank of the river. With a view to dislodging this body, Colonel Ulysses S. Grant, with three thousand Illinois troops, was sent by way of Cairo into Missouri. On November 7th he attacked the Confederate camp at Belmont and was successful in the onset. General Pope threw reinforcements across the river and the Kentucky batteries were brought to bear on the Federal position. Grant was obliged to fall back without much advantage from his initial success.

After Bull Run the government concerned itself first of all with the defences of Washington. The autumn of 1861 was a season of depression to the Union cause. A reaction came, however, for with the subsidence of the panic the administration redoubled its energies. Volunteers came in great numbers from the Northern States, and the first two calls were quickly filled. The aged General Scott, commander-in-chief of the armies, found himself unable longer to bear the burden resting upon him and retired from active duty. General George B. McClellan was called over from West Virginia and put in command of the Army of the Potomac.

The event showed that the young general as an organizer and disciplinarian had no superior. The forces under his command were by the middle of October increased to a hundred and fifty thousand men. The army was no longer a mere rout of volunteers, but a compact, well disciplined and powerful engine of war. On the 21st of October a force of two thousand Federals under Colonel Baker crossed the Potomac at Ball's Bluff, where they were attacked by the Confederates under General Evans and driven back to the river. Colonel Baker was killed and his force routed with a loss of fully eight hundred men.

One of the first tasks imposed on the Federal Government was to gain full command of the seacoast. In the summer of 1861 several naval expeditions were sent out to maintain the authority of the United States along the Confederate sea-border. Commodore Stringham and General Butler sailed to the coast of North Carolina, and the 29th of August captured the forts at Hatteras Inlet. On the 7th of November an armament under Commodore Dupont and General Thomas W. Sherman took Forts Walker and Beauregard at the entrance of Port Royal. Hilton Head, a point most advantageous for operations against Charleston and Savannah, thus fell into the power of the government. A blockade was successfully established around the whole Confederate coast, and soon became so rigorous as to cut off all communication between the Confederate States and foreign nations. A serious difficulty arose at this juncture on account of the blockade between the Federal government and Great Britain.

DANGER FOLLOWING THE SEIZURE OF MASON AND SLIDELL.

One of the chief reliances of the Confederacy was the cotton crop of the Southern States. American cotton had become a virtual necessity to the factories of England. To have the cotton supply cut off suddenly was in the nature of a calamity to the industrial interests of Great Britain. A state of feeling supervened in that country unfavorable to the United States and sympathetic with the Confederacy. The British government desired the success of the rebellion. The Confederate administration played well to this sentiment. James M. Mason and John Slidell, formerly Senators of the United States, were appointed ambassadors of the Confederate States to France and England. Before they left America, however, the Union squadron had closed around the Southern ports, and the ambassadors were obliged to make their escape from Charleston harbor in a blockade runner. Making their way from that port, they reached Havana in safety and were taken on board of the British mail-steamer *Trent* for Europe.

The *Trent* sailed, but on the 8th of November was overtaken by the United States frigate *San Jacinto*, under Captain Wilkes. The *Trent* was unceremoniously hailed and boarded. The two ambassadors and their secretaries were seized, transferred to the *San Jacinto*, carried to Boston and imprisoned. The *Trent* was allowed to proceed on her way to England. The story of the insult to the British flag was told, and the whole kingdom burst out in a blaze of wrath.

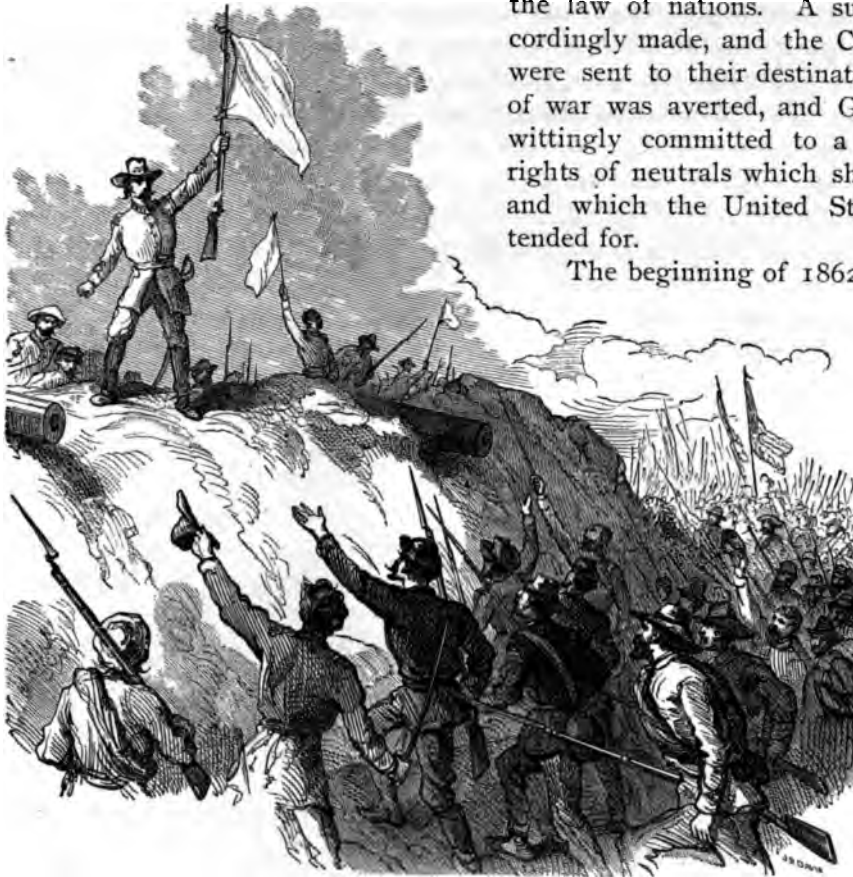
The sequel showed how little disposed nations are to regard consistency and right when their prejudices are involved. For nearly a half century the United States had stoutly contended for the exemption of neutral flags on the high sea. The American theory had always been that the free flag makes free goods, contraband of war only excepted. Great Britain, on the other hand, had been immemorially the most arrogant of all civilized nations in the matter of search and seizure. She had in the course of her history insulted almost every flag seen on the ocean. But in this particular instance the position of the parties was suddenly reversed. The people of the United States loudly applauded Captain Wilkes; the House of Representatives passed a vote of thanks to him, with the presentation of a sword.

Even the administration was disposed to defend his action. Great Britain, with equal inconsistency, flung herself into a furious passion for the alleged insult to her flag and sovereignty. For a short time it appeared that war between the two nations was inevitable.

This peril, however, was avoided by the adroit and far-reaching diplomacy of William H. Seward, Secretary of State. When Great Britain demanded reparation for the insult and immediate liberation of the prisoners, he replied in a mild, cautious and very able paper. It was conceded that the seizure of Mason and Slidell was not in accordance with

the law of nations. A suitable apology was accordingly made, and the Confederate ambassadors were sent to their destination abroad. The peril of war was averted, and Great Britain was unwittingly committed to a policy respecting the rights of neutrals which she had hitherto denied, and which the United States had always contended for.

The beginning of 1862 found the government with an army of about four hundred and fifty thousand men. Nearly two hundred thousand of these composed the Army of the Potomac under General McClellan. Another division, under General Don Carlos Buell, was stationed at Louisville, Kentucky; and it was in this department that the campaigns of the year were begun. Early in January the Confederate Colonel



SURRENDER OF FORT DONELSON.

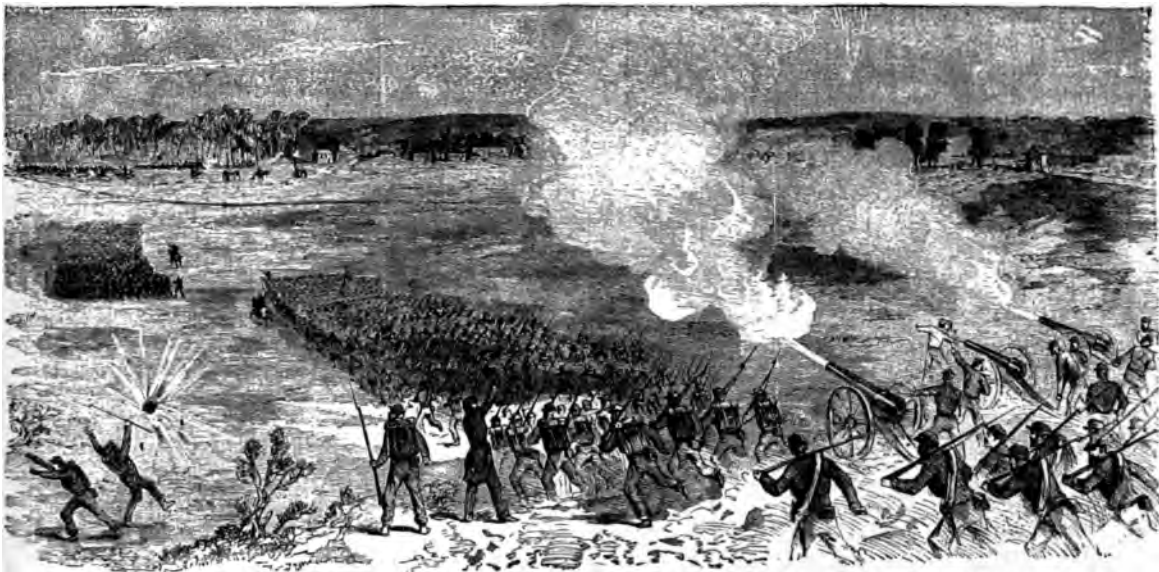
Humphrey Marshall, commanding a force on Big Sandy River, in Eastern Kentucky, was attacked and defeated by a detachment of Unionists under Colonel James A. Garfield. Ten days later an important battle was fought at Mill Spring, Kentucky. The Confederates were led by Generals Crittenden and Zollicoffer and the Federals by General George H. Thomas. Both sides lost heavily, and the Confederates were defeated; General Zollicoffer was among the slain.

CAPTURE OF FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON.

Operations much more important soon followed on the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers. The Tennessee, at the southern border of Kentucky, was commanded by Fort Henry, and the Cumberland by Fort Donelson, ten miles south of the Tennessee line. At the beginning of the year the Federal officers planned the capture of both these places.

Commodore Foote was sent up the Tennessee with a flotilla of gunboats and at the same time General Grant moved against Fort Henry. Before he reached his destination, however, the gunboats compelled the evacuation of the fort, the Confederates escaping to Fort Donelson.

The flotilla now dropped down the Tennessee, took on supplies at Cairo, and then ascended the Cumberland. Grant crossed the country from Fort Henry to Donelson, and found the place well defended by ten thousand Confederates, under General Simon B. Buckner. Grant's forces were fully twenty-five thousand strong; but the weather was extremely bad, and the assaults on the fortifications must be made at great peril and disadvantage. On the 14th of February, 1862, the gunboats in the Cumberland were repulsed with considerable losses. On the next day the garrison of Fort Donelson attempted to break through Grant's lines but were driven back with much slaughter. On the 16th, Buckner was obliged to capitulate. His army, numbering fully ten thousand men, became



BATTLE OF SHILOH.

prisoners of war, and all the magazines, stores and guns of the fort fell into the hands of the Federals. It was the first decided Union victory of the war. The immediate result of the capture was the evacuation of Kentucky and the capital of Tennessee by the Confederates. Nor did they ever afterwards recover the ground thus lost.

THE BATTLE SHOCK AT SHILOH.

Such was the real beginning of the military career of General Ulysses S. Grant. That officer at once followed up his success by ascending the Tennessee river as far as Pittsburg landing. In the first days of April he formed a camp on the left bank of that stream at a place called Shiloh Church. Here on the morning of the 6th of the month the Union army was suddenly and audaciously attacked by the Confederates under Generals Albert S. Johnston and Beauregard. The shock of the onset was at first irresistible. All day long the battle raged with unprecedented slaughter on both sides. The Federals were gradually forced back nearer and nearer to the Tennessee, until at nightfall they came under the protection of the gunboats in the river. Darkness closed on the scene with the conflict undecided; but in the desperate crisis General Buell arrived from Nashville with strong reinforcements.

General Grant, however, by no means despaired of gaining the victory. During the night he, with General William T. Sherman, made arrangements to assume the offensive on the morrow. General Johnston had been killed in the first day's battle. Beauregard, on whom the command was devolved, was unable to gain any further successes. On the contrary, when the battle was renewed on the morning of the 7th, everything went against the Confederates, and they were obliged to fall back in full retreat to Corinth. The losses in killed, wounded and missing in this dreadful conflict were more than ten thousand on each side. Never before had there been such a harvest of death in the countries on this side of the Atlantic.

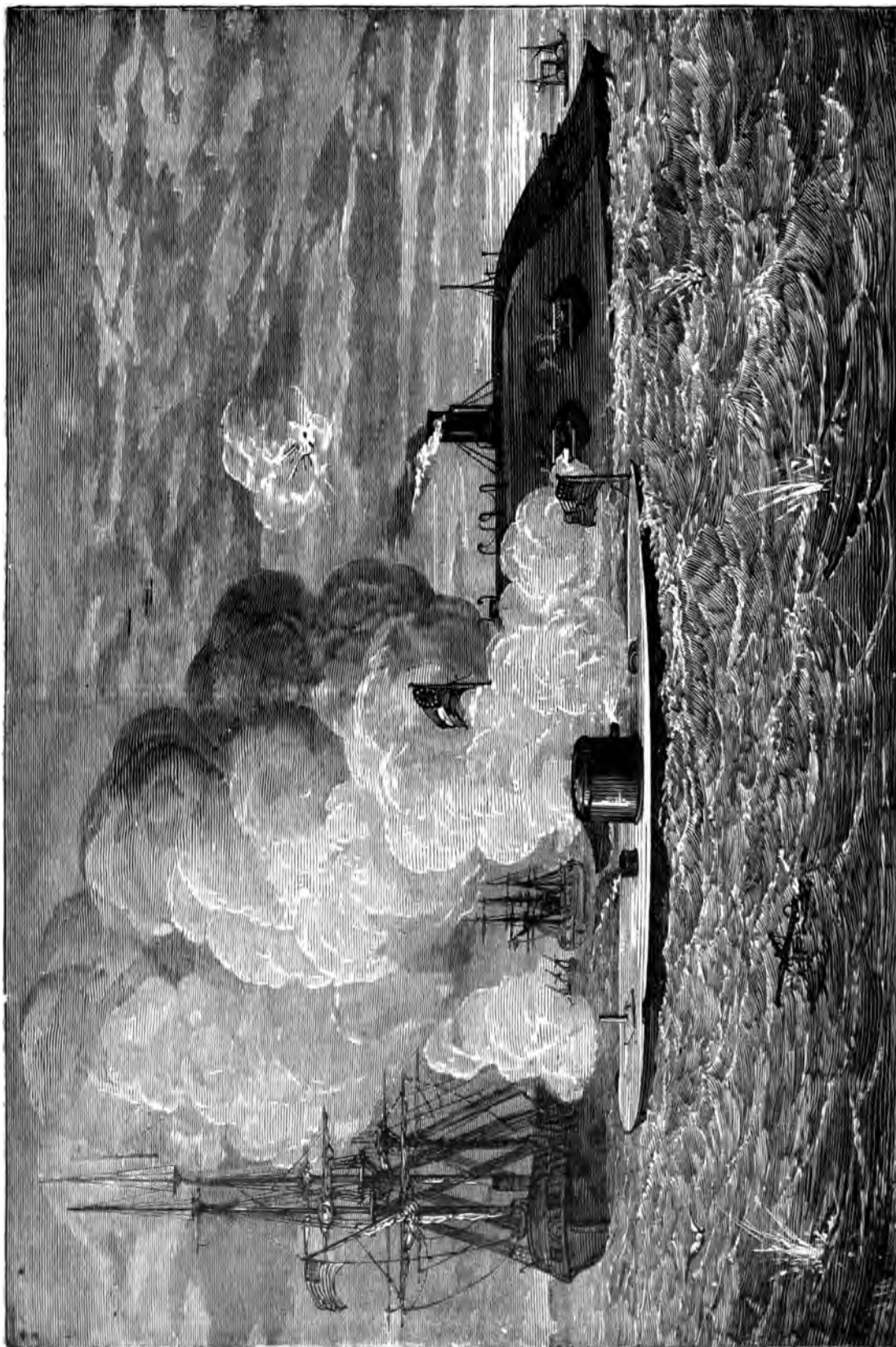
Meanwhile the Federals had been steadily successful in a series of actions on the Mississippi. The Confederates after the evacuation of Columbus, Kentucky, had proceeded to Island Number Ten, a few miles below, and built thereon strong fortifications commanding the two channels of the river. On the western shore the town of New Madrid was held by the Confederates. Against this place General John Pope advanced with a body of Western troops, and was successful in capturing the town. Commodore Foote's flotilla attacked the fortifications on the island, and Pope's forces coöperated with the gunboats in a siege of twenty-three days' duration. On the 7th of April, while the Union army at Shiloh, rallying from apparent defeat, was pressing the Confederates in the direction of Corinth, the garrison of Island Number Ten, numbering five thousand, were made prisoners of war. Thus was the Mississippi, as far down as Memphis, opened to navigation and secured to the control of the Federal fleets.

In the meantime a severe battle had been fought at Pea Ridge, Arkansas, between the Union army under General Curtis and the Confederates and Indians, twenty thousand strong, commanded by McCullough, McIntosh and Pike. The battle was fought on the 6th and 7th of March and resulted in a Federal victory. McCullough and McIntosh were both killed and their shattered forces fell back towards Texas. The Union losses likewise were very severe and the battle had little consequence in the general issues of the war.

DUEL BETWEEN THE MERRIMAC AND MONITOR.

Now it was that the attention of the American people was called to one of the most striking incidents of naval warfare. After the destruction of the Federal navy-yard at Norfolk the Confederates had raised the United States frigate *Merrimac*, one of the sunken ships, and plated her sides with an impenetrable armor of iron. At this time the Union fleet was lying at Fortress Monroe. When the equipment of the *Merrimac* was completed, she was sent down to attack and destroy the squadron. Reaching that place on the 8th of March, the *Merrimac*, called by the Confederates the *Virginia*, began the work of destruction, and two powerful ships, the *Cumberland* and the *Congress* were sent to the bottom. It appeared certain that the work would go on until the Union fleet should be utterly destroyed.

Sometime before this, however, Captain John Ericsson, of New York, had invented and built a peculiar war-vessel which he named the *Monitor*, with a single round tower of iron exposed above the water-line. The tower was made to revolve so as to bring its two great guns to bear alternately on any object of attack. The port-holes were thus only momentarily exposed to an enemy's shot. This strange craft steamed out from New York and came around to Fortress Monroe at the very time when the huge ironclad *Virginia* was making havoc with the Union fleet. On the morning of the 9th of March the two floating monsters came face to face and turned their terrible enginery upon each other. For five



FIGHT BETWEEN THE MONITOR AND MERRIMAC.

hours the contest continued, and at the end of that time the *Virginia* was so much worsted that she gave up the contest and returned in a damaged condition to Norfolk. The event produced the greatest excitement and the navy department of the United States turned its whole energies for the time to the construction of the new war vessels which took the name of Monitors.

In February of this year a strong force under General Ambrose E. Burnside and Commodore Goldsborough was sent against the Confederate garrison at Roanoke Island. On the 8th of the month the Federal squadron attacked and captured the place, making prisoners of nearly three thousand Confederates. Burnside next proceeded against New Berne, North Carolina, and on the 14th of March captured that place after a severe engagement. He next took Fort Macon at the entrance to the harbor of Beaufort. On the 25th of April he gained possession of the town itself.

CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS.

Meanwhile on the 11th of the same month Fort Pulaski, at the mouth of the Savannah river, had surrendered to General Q. A. Gilmore. A still greater reverse awaited the Confederates at New Orleans. In the beginning of April a powerful squadron under General Butler and Admiral Farragut sailed up the Mississippi as far as Forts Jackson and St. Philip, thirty miles from the gulf. These forts were built on opposite shores of the Mississippi, commanding the river, and the channel between was obstructed and sown with torpedoes.

On the 18th of April the Federal fleet of forty-five vessels began the bombardment of the forts. For six days there was an incessant storm of shot and shell on the fortification. Farragut now undertook to run past the batteries; and notwithstanding the hazard, he succeeded in breaking the chain which the Confederates had stretched across the river and in overpowering their fleet. The Federal squadron now came unopposed to New Orleans, and the city yielded. A garrison of fifteen thousand Federal soldiers under General Butler was established in the metropolis of the South. Forts Jackson and St. Philip surrendered two days afterwards, and the control of the lower Mississippi was obtained by the Federal Government.

After Donelson and Shiloh the Confederates, though disheartened for a season, rallied at length and returned to the conflict. Kentucky was invaded by two Confederate armies, one under General Kirby Smith and the other under General Braxton Bragg. The first pressed on to Richmond, where on the 30th of August a battle was fought in which the Federals were routed with heavy losses. Lexington and Frankfort were taken and Cincinnati was seriously threatened. Bragg's army advanced on Munfordville and there on the 17th of September captured a Federal force of fully four thousand men. The Confederate General pressed on towards Louisville, but General Buell made a forced march from Tennessee and arrived in that city only one day ahead of Bragg. That day, however, turned the scale. The Confederates were turned back, and Buell's army was rapidly augmented to a hundred thousand men. That officer took the field, and on the 8th of October fought with Bragg at Perryville a severe but indecisive battle. The Confederates then fell back towards East Tennessee, sweeping with them out of Kentucky a train of four thousand wagons laden with the spoils of the campaign.

BATTLES OF IUKA AND CORINTH.

The next change of scene was to the banks of the Mississippi. On the 19th of September a hard battle was fought at Iuka between the Federal army under Grant and Rose-

crans and the Confederates under Price. The latter suffered a defeat, losing in addition to his killed and wounded nearly a thousand prisoners. Rosecrans afterwards took post at Corinth with twenty thousand men, while General Grant with the remainder of the Federal army marched to Jackson, Tennessee. The Confederate commanders Van Dorn and Price, perceiving the division of the Federal forces, turned about with the intention of recapturing Corinth, and accordingly attacked the Federal lines at that place on the 23d of October, and a severe engagement ensued with heavy losses to both parties, but the Confederates were repulsed.

The close of 1862 found the Mississippi River open to the Federals above and below Vicksburg, but in the latitude of that city it was held with a firm grip by the Confederacy.



HEROISM OF COLONEL ROGERS.

To relieve this stricture was the object of the movements which were now begun by General Grant. That officer first proceeded from Jackson to La Grange. He and General Sherman now entered into coöperation in an effort against Vicksburg. An attempt was made to capture this place in December, but on the 20th of that month General Van Dorn succeeded in cutting Grant's line of supplies at Holly Springs, obliging the Union commander to fall-back. General Sherman dropped down the river from Memphis as far as Yazoo, where he landed and attacked the Confederate forts at Chickasaw Bayou.

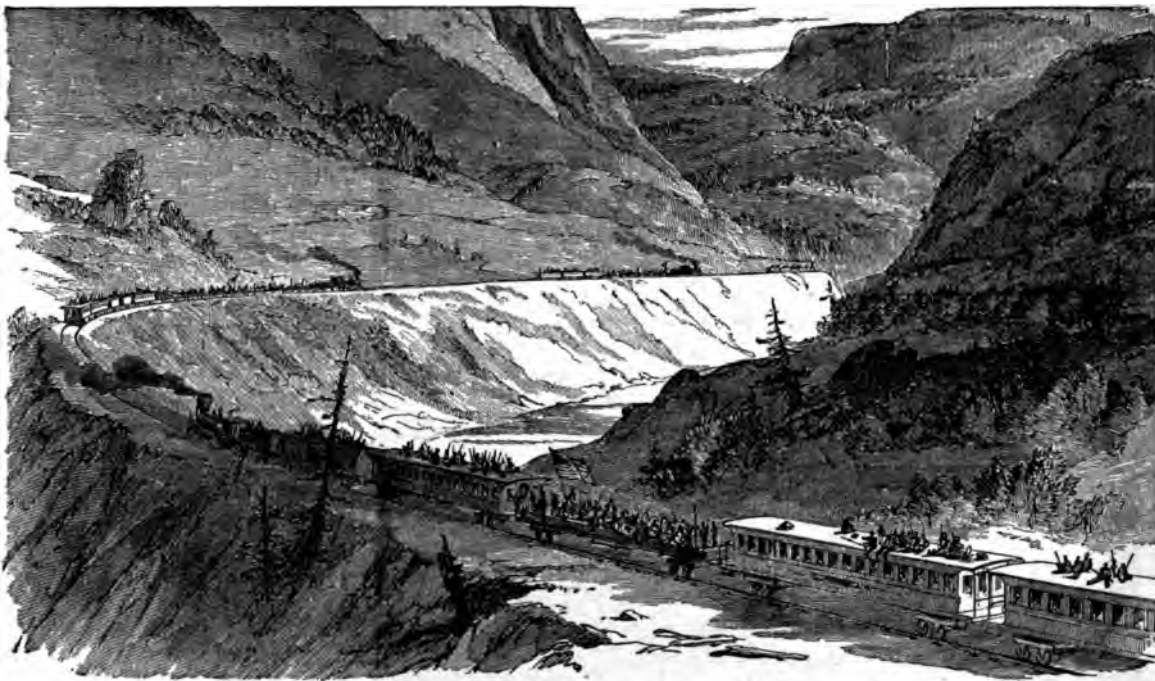
The result was exceedingly disastrous to the Federals, who lost in killed, wounded and prisoners more than three thousand men. The defeated army took to the fleet and drew back up the Mississippi.

The year was destined to close with a great battle. Rosecrans had now been transferred to the command of the Army of the Cumberland. During the fall he collected a powerful army at Nashville. General Bragg, on retiring from Kentucky, threw his force into Murfreesborough, only thirty miles distant from Nashville. Rosecrans moved against his antagonist, and on the evening of the 30th of December came upon his lines at Stone River, a short distance northwest from Murfreesborough.

BATTLE OF MURFREESBOROUGH.

Preparations were at once made on both sides for a general attack. Rosecrans planned to mass his force on the Confederate right, while Bragg's plan was the exact counterpart of that of the Federal General. Both massed to the left, so that when the battle began on the morning of the 31st the two armies were in a manner thrust by each other. The battle began with great fury and lasted until noonday. The Union right was shattered and driven from the field. The brunt of the struggle fell on General Thomas, and he, too, was forced back to another position; but he held his place until Rosecrans was able to readjust his line of battle. It was only by the utmost exertions and heroism of the division of General William B. Hazen that the Federal army was saved from a general rout. At nightfall more than seven thousand Union soldiers were missing from the ranks.

During the night, however, Rosecrans prepared to renew the fight. On New Year's morning Bragg found his antagonist firmly posted with shortened lines and defiant. That



GENERAL AUGUR'S BRIGADE PASSING THROUGH MANASSAS GAP TO REINFORCE GENERAL BANKS.

day was spent in indecisive actions. On the morning of the 2d of January, 1863, the battle broke out anew. There was a terrific cannonade, and at three o'clock in the afternoon the Confederates drove the Union left across the river. This brought the assailants, however, within range of the Federal artillery. Rosecrans rallied, and with a general advance along the whole line drove Bragg's forces from the field with a loss of several thousand men. During the night the Confederate commander drew off in the direction of Tullahoma. The losses on each side were about eleven thousand men.

With the coming of spring, 1863, active campaigns were undertaken in the East. Virginia was converted into a battle-field. The ball was opened in the valley of the Shenandoah. General N. P. Banks, with a strong division, pressed his way forward, in March, as far as the town of Harrisonburg. On the other side General Thomas J. Jackson, known to history as Stonewall Jackson, was sent with a force of twenty thousand men to cross the

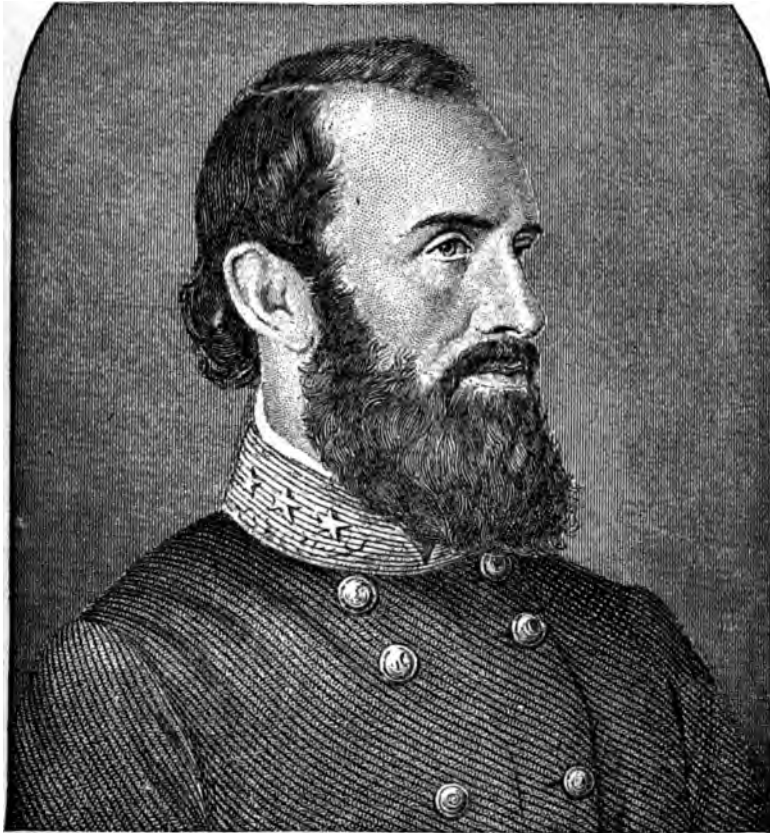
Blue Ridge and cut off Banks' retreat. At Front Royal the Confederates came upon a body of the Federals and routed them, capturing their guns and military stores. Banks, learning of the disaster, retreated down the valley, hotly pursued by Jackson, until the Federals put the Potomac between them and the enemy.

This excursion to the North had put Jackson in peril. General Fremont at the head of a strong force of fresh troops was sent into the valley to intercept the Confederate retreat. Jackson fell back with the greatest celerity and reached Cross Keys before Fremont could attack him. Even then the engagement was indecisive and the Confederate general was able to fall upon the division of General Shields at Port Republic and defeat it before leaving

the valley and rejoining the main army for the defence of Richmond. It was the first of those remarkable campaigns which demonstrated the military genius of Stonewall Jackson.

ON TO RICHMOND.

On the 10th of March, 1862, the great Army of the Potomac, numbering nearly two hundred thousand men, thoroughly disciplined and equipped, set out under General McClellan from the camps about Washington on a campaign against the Confederate capital. It was the theory of the national government that the capture of Richmond was the principal object to be attained in the war. It was only after the severest reverses and the rise of a new group of commanders that the more sensible plan of striking the



GENERAL T. J. (STONEWALL) JACKSON.

Confederate armies, rather than their seat of government, was adopted instead.

McClellan pressed forward to Manassas Junction, the Confederates falling back and forming new lines as he advanced. The Rappahannock was placed between the two great armies. At this stage of the campaign, however, McClellan changed his plan and embarked a hundred and twenty thousand of his men for Fortress Monroe with a view to proceeding from that point up the peninsula between the James and York Rivers. This change of base occupied the time to the 4th of April, when the Union army left Fortress Monroe for Yorktown. The latter place was held by ten thousand men under General Magruder and yet with this small force McClellan's advance was stayed for a whole month. It was one of the military peculiarities of the Union General to overestimate the forces of his enemy and to display undue caution in his presence.

On the 4th of May, however, Yorktown was taken and the Federals pressed on to Williamsburg. There the Confederates made a second stand, but were defeated with considerable losses. Four days afterwards a third engagement occurred at a place called West Point, on the Mattapony, where the Confederates were again driven back. The way now lay open as far as the Chickahominy, within ten miles of Richmond. The Union army reached that stream without further resistance and crossed at a place called Bottom's Bridge.

Meanwhile General Wool had, on the 10th of May, led an expedition from Fortress Monroe and recaptured Norfolk from the Confederates. It was at this time that the great ironclad *Virginia* was blown up to prevent her from falling into the hands of the Federals. The James River was thus opened for the ingress of transports laden with supplies for the Army of the Potomac.

After crossing the Chickahominy, McClellan advanced three miles in the direction of the Confederate capital. At that point on the 31st of May he was confronted by the Confederates in full force at a place called Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines. Here for two days the battle raged till at last the Confederates were forced from the field. The Union victory, however, was by no means decisive. The Confederates lost nearly eight thousand in killed and wounded, while the Federal



MAP OF MCCLELLAN'S DEFENSIVE LINES AND OPERATIONS OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.

losses were in excess of five thousand. General Joseph E. Johnston, commander-in-chief of the Confederate armies, was severely wounded and his place was filled by the appointment of General Robert E. Lee, a man whose military genius from that time to the close of the war was ever conspicuous. He became indeed the chief stay of the Confederate cause until the day of its final collapse at Appomattox.

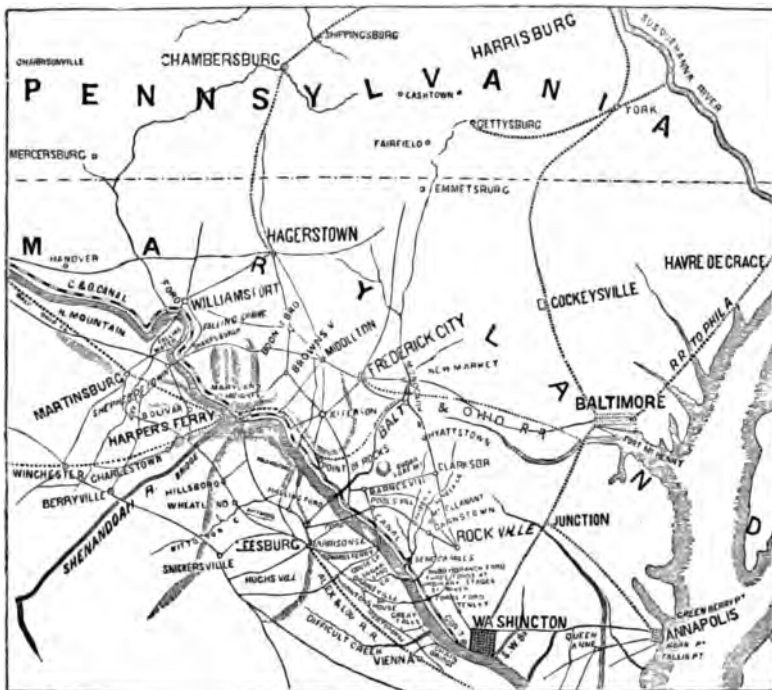
DESPERATE FIGHTING BEFORE RICHMOND.

The battle of Fair Oaks was so little decisive that McClellan determined to change his base of supplies from the White House, so-called, on the Pamunkey, to some suitable point on the James. The movement was one of great hazard. General Lee, discovering the operation of his antagonist, swooped down on the right wing of the Union army at Oak Grove, where another hard battle was fought without decisive results. This was followed on the next day with a third dreadful engagement at Mechanicsville. In this conflict the

Federals gained the field, but on the following morning Lee renewed the struggle at Gaines's Mill and came out victorious. On the 28th there was but little fighting. On the 29th McClellan was twice attacked, first at Savage's Station and later in the day in White Oak Swamp, but nothing decisive was achieved on either side. On the 30th was fought the desperate battle of Glendale, or Frazier's Farm. On that night the Federal army reached Malvern Hill, on the north bank of the James, twelve miles below Richmond.

McClellan had thus receded about five miles in a circuitous direction from the Confederate capital. His position at Malvern Hill was strong, besides the Federal gunboats in the

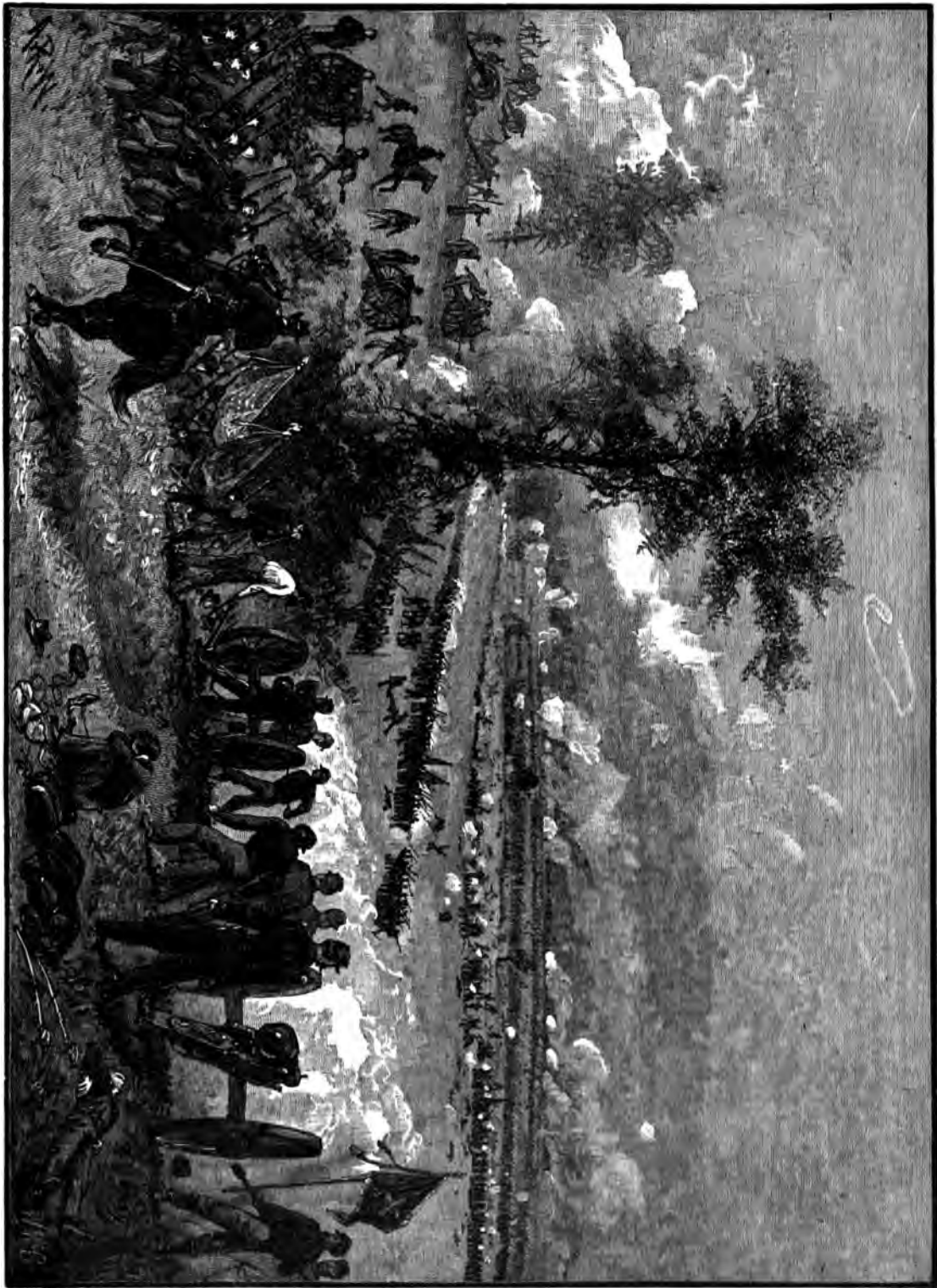
James now furnished protection. General Lee, however, determined to assault the Union position, and on the morning of the 1st of July the whole Confederate army was pushed forward for the attack. Throughout the day the struggle for the possession of the high grounds was furious in the last degree. The battle lasted until nine o'clock at night, when Lee's shattered columns fell back exhausted. For seven days the roar of battle had continued almost without cessation. No such dreadful scenes had hitherto been witnessed on the American continent, and but rarely in the Old World.



PART OF MARYLAND RAIDED BY THE CONFEDERATE ARMY.

McClellan was very clearly victorious at Malvern Hill, and in the judgment of after times might have at once made a successful advance on Richmond. Lee's army was broken to fragments, and McClellan was greatly superior in numbers. That commander, however, chose as usual the less hazardous course. On the 2d of July he retired to Harrison's landing, a few miles down the river. The great campaign was really at an end. The Federal army had lost on the advance from Yorktown to Malvern Hill inclusive, fully fifteen thousand men and the capture of Richmond seemed further off than ever. The losses of the Confederates had been heavier than those of the Union army, but the moral effect of victory remained with the South.

General Lee, availing himself of his advantage and quickly recuperating from his losses, immediately planned an invasion of Maryland and the capture of Washington city. The Union troops between Richmond and Washington numbered about fifty thousand and were under command of General John Pope. They were scattered at several points from Fredericksburg to Winchester and Harper's Ferry. Lee's advance was made at the middle of August and Pope began at once to concentrate his forces. On the 20th of the month he got his army to the north bank of the Rappahannock. While these movements were taking



BATTLE OF MALVERN HILL (LEE'S ATTACK).

place General Banks, attempting to form a junction with Pope, was attacked by Stonewall Jackson at Cedar Mountain, where only desperate fighting saved the Federals from rout.

Jackson now passed with his division on a flank movement, reached Manassas Junction and captured that place with its garrison and stores. Pope with great audacity threw his army between the two divisions of Confederates, hoping to crush Jackson before Lee could come to the rescue. On the 28th and 29th of August there was terrible fighting on the old Bull Run battle-ground and at Centerville. At one time it appeared that Lee's army would be completely defeated; but Pope's reinforcements, a strong division under Fitz John Porter, did not reach the field in time and Pope was defeated. On the 31st a dreadful battle was fought at Chantilly, lasting all day. The Confederates were victorious, and Generals Stephens and Kearney were among the thousands who fell from the Union ranks in this struggle. Pope by night withdrew his shattered columns and took refuge in the defences at Washington. He immediately resigned his command, and his Army of Virginia was consolidated with the Army of the Potomac. The latter had now been recalled from the peninsula below Richmond, and General McClellan was placed in supreme command of all the divisions about Washington. Thus in dire disaster ended what is known as the Peninsular Campaign.

BATTLE OF ANTIETAM.

General Lee, victorious over Pope, pressed on to the Potomac, crossed at the Point of Rocks and on the 6th of September captured Frederick. On the 10th Hagerstown was taken,



GENERAL JOSEPH HOOKER.

and on the 15th Stonewall Jackson, falling upon Harper's Ferry, *frightened* the commandant, Colonel Miles, into a surrender, by which the garrison, numbering nearly twelve thousand became prisoners of war. On the previous day a hard battle had been fought at South Mountain in which the Federals were victorious. By these movements McClellan's army was brought into the immediate rear of Lee, who on the night of the 14th fell back to Antietam Creek and took a strong position in the vicinity of Sharpsburg.

Another great battle was now at hand. During the 15th of September there was much skirmishing; but night came without decisive results. These movements continued during the 16th. General Hooker, commanding the Federal right, was thrown across the Antietam, obtaining thereby a favorable position.

The Confederate left, under Hood, was assailed and forced back in the direction of Sharpsburg. Then followed a cannonade until nightfall.

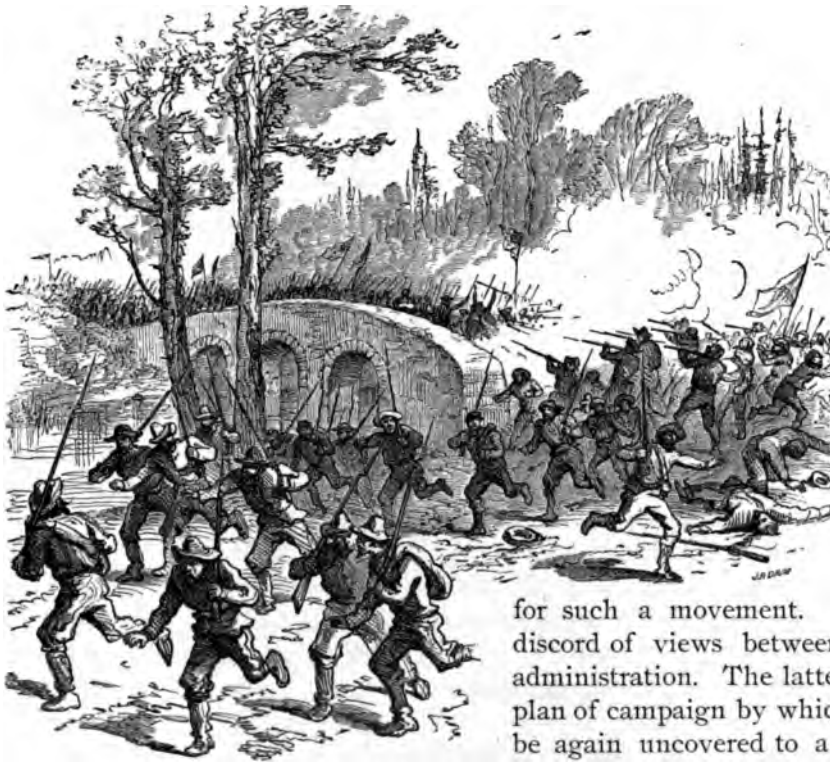
On the morning of the 17th both armies were well posted. The Federals were strongest in numbers, but the Confederates had the advantage of an unfordable stream in their front. It was of great importance to McClellan that he should gain and hold the four stone bridges by which passage could be had to the other side. General Burnside, who was ordered to capture the lower bridge and attack the division of A. P. Hill, was retarded in his movements; and it was only by terrible fighting that he succeeded in holding his position on the west bank of the Antietam. On the Union right Hooker fought a successful battle; but the success was gained by great losses, including that of General Mansfield. At the close of day the Union army had gained the west bank of the

river, and the Confederates were worsted all along the line; but they still held nearly the same ground as in the morning, and the final struggle was reserved for the morrow.

With the morrow, however, McClellan began to act on the defensive. It was another of those fatal delays for which the military career of that General was unfortunately noted. During the 18th two strong divisions of Federals, under Generals Humphrey and Couch, arrived, and it was the intention of the Union commanders to renew the battle on the 19th; but General Lee, wiser than his antagonist, availed himself of the delay, withdrew from his critical position and recrossed the Potomac into Virginia. The great conflict which had cost the Union army an aggregate of ten thousand men ended in a drawn battle, in which there was little to be praised except the heroism of the soldiery. To the Confederates, however, the campaign had ended in defeat. The people of Maryland did not rise in behalf of the Confederate cause and General Lee was obliged to relinquish the invasion which had cost him in the short space of a month about twenty-five thousand men.

PREPARATIONS FOR ANOTHER ADVANCE ON RICHMOND.

After Antietam there was another lull and it was late in October before McClellan, following the retreating Confederates, again entered Virginia. The determination of the



STORMING THE BRIDGE AT ANTIETAM

national Government, however, was not abated. The administration was pledged to the suppression of the Rebellion. That Rebellion had now become a mighty war, strongly tending to revolution and a general change of American history. It was the intention of the authorities to make another advance on Richmond before the coming of winter and the Union commander was ordered to prepare-

for such a movement. There was, however, a discord of views between that General and the administration. The latter objected to McClellan's plan of campaign by which Washington city would be again uncovered to a counter invasion of the Confederates. It was the desire of the Union General to establish his base of supplies at West

Point, on the Pamunkey river; but the President and Secretary of War insisted that he should choose Alexandria as his base of operations. From this point it was proposed to go forward by way of the Orange railroad, through Culpeper to Gordonsville and thence by the Virginia Central to its junction with the line reaching from Fredericksburg to Richmond.

The sequel showed that the break between General McClellan and the authorities at Washington was fatal. The whole of October was wasted with delays and November was begun before that commander with an army of a hundred and twenty thousand men announced himself ready for the advance. On the 7th of the month, when the movement was about to begin, he was superseded and his command transferred to General Burnside. Right or wrong, the President at last reached the decision that General McClellan was a man over-cautious and slow, too prudent and too much absorbed with preliminaries to lead great armies to victory.

With the accession of Burnside the plan of the campaign was at once changed. The new commander would establish his base of supplies at the mouth of Aquia creek, fifty-five miles below Washington, and from that point move southward through Fredericksburg on his way to Richmond. But there was another great delay in preparation and General Lee had ample time to discover the purpose of his antagonist and to gather his army on the heights about Fredericksburg. The passage of the Union army across the Rappahannock was not seriously resisted. The movement was effected with little loss or opposition and on the 12th of December Burnside established his lines on the right bank of the river, from Falmouth to a point opposite the mouth of the Massaponax, three miles below.

BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG.

Early on the 13th of December a general battle began on the Union left, where Franklin's division was met by that of Stonewall Jackson. At the beginning of the engagement General Meade succeeded in breaking the Confederate line ; but the movement was not sustained ; the Confederates rallied and drove back the Federals with a loss of about three thousand men. Jackson's loss was almost as great and the result was indecisive. On the centre and right, however, the battle went wholly against Burnside. General Sumner's division was ordered against the Confederates on Marye's Hill and the charge was gallantly made ; but the attacking columns were mowed down by the thousand and hurled back while the defenders of the heights hardly lost a man. Time and again the assault was renewed, but always with the same disastrous result. The carnage did not end until darkness fell over the scene of conflict.

General Burnside, rashly patriotic and almost out of his wits, would have renewed the battle, but the subordinate officers dissuaded him, and on the night of the 15th the whole army was quietly withdrawn to the left bank of the Rappahannock. The Union losses in the battle of Fredericksburg amounted in killed, wounded and prisoners to more than twelve thousand men. The Confederates lost something over five thousand. Of all the important movements of the war only that of Fredericksburg was undertaken with *no* probability of success. Under the plan of battle nothing could be reasonably expected but repulse, rout and ruin. Thus in gloom, disaster and humiliation ended the Virginia campaign of 1862.

CHAPTER XXVI.

DECLINE AND OVERTHROW OF THE CONFEDERACY.



THE Civil War had continued with the same results through the year 1863, the revolution attempted by the Confederate leaders must have succeeded. Thus far the battle had, on the whole, gone in favor of the South. It appeared not improbable that the dissolution of the Union would be effected. It became the aim and determination of the Confederate government to hold out against the superior resources of the North until they should compel the national authorities to yield the contest.

The war had now grown to unheard-of proportions. The Southern States cast all on the die, and drained every source of men and means for the support of their armies.

The National Government also was greatly taxed, but the resources of the North were by no means exhausted. On the 2d of July, 1862, President Lincoln issued a call for three hundred thousand men. In the exciting times of Pope's retreat, he sent forth another call for three hundred thousand, and to this was soon added a requisition by draft for three hundred thousand more. Most of these demands were promptly met, and the discerning eye might already discover, at the beginning of 1863, that the national authority was destined to be reëstablished by force of arms.

On the first day of the new year President Lincoln issued the celebrated Emancipation Proclamation. The President had hitherto declared that he would save the Union *with* slavery if he could, but *without* it if he must. Meanwhile a growing animosity against the system of human bondage had spread among the people. The sentiment of abolition began to prevail among both the people and the soldiery. It came to be regarded by the Government as a military necessity to strike a blow at the labor system of the South, and the step was finally taken with little hesitancy or opposition. The President had issued a preliminary proclamation in September of 1862, in which he warned the people of the Southern States to lay down their arms and return to their allegiance, under the menace of the destruction of their peculiar institution. The warning was met with disdain, and the Emancipation Proclamation was accordingly issued. Thus after an existence of two hundred and forty-four years, African slavery in the United States was swept away.

The beginning of the new year found General William T. Sherman in active movement on the Mississippi. That commander sent out an expedition early in January for the capture of Arkansas Post, on the Arkansas river. The Union forces reached their destination on the 10th of the month, and after a hard-fought battle gained a decisive victory. Arkansas Post was taken, with nearly five thousand prisoners. The expedition was then turned about for Vicksburg, in order to coöperate with General Grant in a second effort to capture that stronghold and free the Mississippi river.

THE REDUCTION OF VICKSBURG.

With this end in view the Union army was collected at Memphis, and embarked on the Mississippi. A landing was first made at Yazoo, but the capture of Vicksburg from that direction was now regarded as impracticable. For three months General Grant beat about the half-frozen bayous, swamps and hills around Vicksburg, in the hope of gaining a position in the rear of the town. An attempt was made to cut a canal across the bend in the river, with a view to turning the channel, thus opening a passage for the Union gunboats; but a flood in the Mississippi washed away the works, and the enterprise ended in failure. Another canal was begun, but presently abandoned. Finally, in the beginning of April, it was determined at all hazards to run the fleet past the Vicksburg batteries. On the night



GENERAL WM. T. SHERMAN.

of the 16th, the boats were made ready and silently dropped down the stream. It had been hoped that in the darkness they might pass unobserved; but all of a sudden the guns burst forth from the Mississippi shore with terrible discharges of shot and shell, which exploded among the passing steamers; but they went by with comparatively little damage, and gained a safe position below the city.

By this extraordinary manœuvre Grant was now able to transfer his land forces down the right bank of the Mississippi and to form a junction with the fleet below Vicksburg. This done, he crossed the river at Bruinsburg on the 30th of April, and on the following day fought with the Confederates a victorious battle at Port Gibson. This success obliged the Confederates to evacuate Grand Gulf, and the Union army was thus free to move at will in the rear of Vicksburg.

But there was much hazard in the situation. On the 12th of May another battle was fought at Raymond and the Confederates were defeated. At this juncture General Joseph E. Johnston was on the march from Jackson to reinforce the forces at Vicksburg, which were commanded by General J. C. Pemberton. The right wing of the Union army, under Sherman and McPherson, fell in with Johnston on the 14th of the month, and a severe battle was fought, in which the Confederates were defeated. Grant was able to follow up his success with the capture of Jackson. The possession of the lines of communication between Vicksburg and the interior was secured by the Union General, and his antagonist was forced back towards Vicksburg. Pemberton, however, was not willing to be shut up without a struggle for freedom. He accordingly moved out with the greater part of his forces, and on the 16th of the month fought with the Federal army the decisive battle of Champion Hill. This was followed by a second conflict at Black River. In both engagements the Federals were victorious, and the Confederate army was effectually cooped up within the fortifications of Vicksburg.

That city was invested and besieged by the Union army. On the 19th of May General Grant attempted to carry the Confederate works by assault, but the attack was repulsed with severe losses. Three days afterwards another assault was made, but the Federal columns, though they gained some ground in different parts of the field, were hurled back with great destruction of life. The aggregate losses in the two attacks amounted to nearly three thousand men.

The siege was now pressed with ever-increasing vigor. The Confederate garrison was presently placed on short rations. A condition of starvation ensued, but Pemberton held out for more than a month. It was not until the Fourth of July that he was obliged to surrender. By the act of capitulation the Confederate army, thirty thousand strong, became prisoners of war. Thousands of small arms, hundreds of cannon and vast quantities of ammunition and military stores were the additional fruits of this great Union victory, by which the national cause gained more and the Confederacy lost more than in any previous struggle of the war. It was a blow from which the South was never able to recover.

General N. P. Banks had now superseded General Butler in the command of the department of the Gulf. That officer set out early in January from Baton Rouge, and advanced with a strong force into Louisiana. He encountered the Confederates at a place called Bayou Teche and gained there a decisive victory. He then moved northward and began a siege of Fort Hudson, Mississippi. The beleaguered garrison, under General Gardner, made a brave defence, holding out until the 8th of July. When the news of the fall of Vicksburg reached Gardner, however, he capitulated, by which six thousand additional Confederate soldiers became prisoners of war. It was the last stroke by which the Mississippi was freed from Confederate control and opened through its whole length to the operations of the Federal army. The series of movements by which this work was accomplished reflected the highest honor upon the military genius of General Grant. After Vicksburg the attention and confidence of the North were turned to him as the leader who was destined to conduct the national armies to final triumph.

DESTRUCTION WROUGHT BY CAVALRY RAIDS.

At this period of the war cavalry raids became the order of the day. These movements were an important element of larger military operations. The possibility of them was first noted and their value demonstrated by Stonewall Jackson in his Shenandoah campaigns of 1862. Later in that year, after the battle of Antietam, General J. E. B. Stuart, commanding the cavalry of the army of Northern Virginia, made an excursion with eighteen hundred troopers into Pennsylvania. He captured Chambersburg, made a complete circuit of the Union army and returned in safety into Virginia.

In the spring of 1863 Colonel Benjamin Grierson of the Sixth Illinois cavalry struck out with his command from La Grange, Tennessee, entered Mississippi, traversed the State to the east of Jackson, cut the railroads, destroyed great amounts of property, and after a rapid course of more than eight hundred miles through the enemy's country, gained the Mississippi at Baton Rouge. Both sections of the country along the border lines of the war were kept in the utmost agitation and alarm by these recurring raids. With the progress of the conflict such movements became more and more injurious. The commanders of them and the men whom they led learned to perfection the arts of destruction. The skill of the raiders was directed chiefly to the annihilation of railroads and telegraphs. This work became a new military art, and the destructive abilities of the raiders were such that miles of track and road-bed were destroyed in a single day.

After Murfreesborough, General Rosecrans remained inactive for a season. Late in

the spring the command of Colonel A. B. Streight made a raid into Georgia, met the division of the Confederate General Forrest, was captured and sent to Libby prison. While the siege of Vicksburg was in progress Rosecrans resumed activities, and by a series of flank movements obliged General Bragg to retire from Tennessee into Georgia. The Union General followed, and planted himself at Chattanooga, on the left bank of the Tennessee.

BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA.

The Confederate authorities now sent forward large reinforcements to Bragg, including the divisions of Johnston from Mississippi and Longstreet from Virginia. On the 19th of September the Confederate commander turned upon the Federal army at Chickamauga Creek, in the northwest angle of Georgia, where was fought one of the great battles of the war. Night fell on the scene with the victory undecided. Under cover of the dark-



A RAILROAD BATTERY OF THE RAIDERS.

ness the Confederates, strongly reinforced by Longstreet, prepared for the renewal of the conflict. Longstreet took the Confederate left, opposite the Union right, held by General Cook. The battle was renewed on the morning of the 20th, and for a while the Federals held their ground with unflinching courage. After some hours of indecisive fighting, the national battle line was opened by General Wood, acting under mistaken orders. Longstreet, seeing the mistake, thrust forward a heavy column into the gap, cut the Union army in two, and drove the shattered right wing in utter rout from the field. The brunt of the battle now fell on General Thomas, who held the Union left. That officer, with a desperate valor hardly surpassed in the annals of war, clung to his position until nightfall, and then under cover of darkness withdrew into Chattanooga, where the defeated army of Rosecrans found a precarious shelter. The Union losses in this dreadful battle amounted in killed, wounded and missing to nearly nineteen thousand and the Confederate loss was equally appalling.

Bragg pressed forward at once to the siege of Chattanooga. He succeeded in cutting the Federal lines of communication and for awhile the army of Rosecrans was threatened with total destruction. General Hooker came to the rescue with two army corps from the Army of the Potomac, opened the Tennessee River and brought a measure of relief to the besieged. But the great step towards recovery was the promotion of General Ulysses S. Grant to the chief command of all the Western armies. That commander, whose star now struggled out of the clouds of doubt and disparagement to shine with ever increasing brightness, at once assumed direction of affairs at Chattanooga. Nor was there ever a time in the course of the war when a change of commanders was immediately felt in so salutary a measure. Sherman also arrived at Chattanooga with his division and the Army of the Cumberland was able to assume the offensive against the Confederates.

BATTLE OF LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN.

The left wing of Bragg's army rested at this time on Lookout Mountain and the right on Missionary Ridge. The Confederate position was seemingly impregnable, but the Union-commander did not hesitate to attack his antagonist. At this very time Bragg was maturing his plans for an assault on Chattanooga. On the 20th of November he went so far as to notify General Grant to remove all non-combatants from the city as he was about to begin a bombardment. To this menace the Union General paid no attention. On the 23d of the month Hooker was sent with his corps across the river below Chattanooga to gain a footing at the bottom of Lookout Mountain. He was ordered to hold



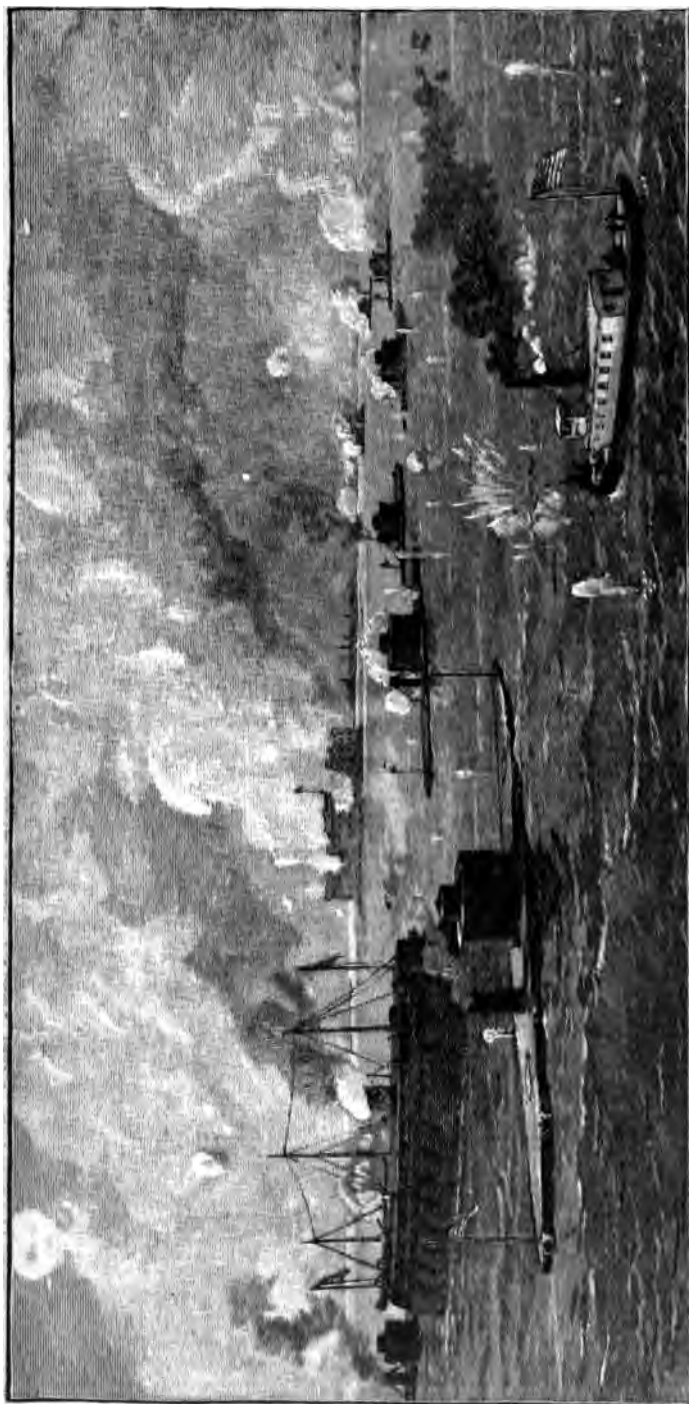
A CHARGE AT MISSIONARY RIDGE.

himself in readiness to make an assault with the support of Generals Gerry, Geary and Osterhaus. The Union line in front of Chattanooga was kept in a state of activity to distract the attention of the Confederates from the real point of attack.

The movements of Hooker on the Union right were concealed by a fog that hung like a hood over the mountain. The assault began early in the morning and the Confederate rifle-pits along the foothills were successfully carried. The Union charge gathered enthusiasm and momentum in its course. The assault was made up the steep sides of Lookout, but the Union troops went forward with irresistible energy. The mountain was not strongly defended by the Confederates, for the reason of its apparent inaccessibility. The Federal charge went to the summit and by two o'clock in the afternoon the national flag was waving above the clouds on the top of Lookout. The Confederates retreated down the eastern slope and across the intervening valleys towards Missionary Ridge.

Bragg now perceived that he was to be the attacked instead of the attacking party. During the night of the 24th he concentrated his forces for the defence of his position. On the morning of the 25th Grant ordered Hooker to bear down the slopes of Lookout, cross

the Chattanooga and renew the battle on the Confederate left. General Sherman meanwhile had thrown a pontoon bridge across the Tennessee and gained a lodgment for his division



ATTACK ON CHARLESTON.

on the northeastern declivity of Missionary Ridge. General Thomas, commanding the Union centre, lay on the southern and eastern slopes of Orchard Knob impatiently awaiting the result of Sherman's and Hooker's onsets.

Hooker was delayed in his movements, but at two o'clock in the afternoon the signal of an artillery discharge from Orchard Knob announced the beginning of the assault along the whole line.* Instantly the Union column moved forward. The thrilling scenes of Lookout Mountain were reenacted on a more magnificent scale. General Grant had ordered the assaulting columns to take the rifle-pits at the foot of Missionary Ridge and then to pause and re-form for the principal charge; but such was the *elan* of the army, such the impetuosity of its impact, that after carrying the rifle-pits the column of its own motion pressed forward at full speed, clambered up the slopes and drove the Confederates in a disastrous rout from the summit of the Ridge. No more brilliant operation was witnessed during the war.

In the following night General Bragg withdrew in the direction of Ringgold, Georgia. His army was greatly shattered by defeat. The Confederate losses had reached in killed, wounded and prisoners fully ten thousand men. The Federals lost in the two

* The reverberations of Grant's six shotted guns from Orchard Knob were the signal of the beginning of the end of the Confederacy.

battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge more than five thousand, of whom seven hundred and fifty-seven were killed. The result was so decisive as to end the war in Tennessee until it was recklessly renewed by General Hood at Franklin and Nashville in the winter of 1864.

Meanwhile General Burnside was making a strenuous effort to hold East Tennessee against the attempts of the Confederacy. On the 1st of September he arrived at Knoxville and was cordially received by the people, most of whom in this section of the State had remained firm in their allegiance to the Union. After Chickamauga General Longstreet was sent into East Tennessee to suppress the Union party and prevent the restoration of the national authority. On his march towards Knoxville he captured several detachments of Federal troops and then began a siege of the town. On the 29th of November he made an attempt to carry Knoxville by assault, but was repulsed with heavy losses. General Grant looked with the greatest solicitude to the situation of affairs in East Tennessee, and as soon as Bragg retreated from Chattanooga sent General Sherman to the relief of Knoxville. As the latter drew near Longstreet prudently drew off into Virginia.

INVASION OF MISSOURI.

The Confederates had in the meantime resumed activities in Arkansas and southern Missouri. Early in 1863 strong forces under Generals Marmaduke and Price entered this region of country,

and on the 8th of January attacked the city of Springfield. Their assault, however, was repulsed with considerable losses to the assailants. Three days afterwards another battle was fought at the town of Hartsville, with like results. On the 26th of April Marmaduke made an attack on Cape Girardeau, on the Mississippi, but was for the third time repelled. On the 4th



LEE AND JACKSON PLANNING THE BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.

of July General Holmes, with an army of about eight thousand men, made an attack on Helena, Arkansas, but was defeated with a loss of one-fifth of his forces. It was on the 13th of August in this year that the town of Lawrence, Kansas, was sacked and burned and a hundred and forty persons killed by a band of guerillas led by a chieftain called Quantrell. On the 10th of September General Steele reached Little Rock, Arkansas, captured the city, and restored the national authority in the State.

The greatest raid of the year, and perhaps of the war, was that of the Confederate General John Morgan. That officer, at the head of a cavalry force three thousand strong, started northward from the town of Sparta, Tennessee, for an invasion of Kentucky, Indiana and Ohio. While passing through the first-named State he gathered strength, so

that his force on reaching the Ohio River was formidable. He crossed at a place called Brandenburg and began his march through Indiana to the north and east. The home-guards of that State turned out ; but the movements of Morgan were so rapid that it was difficult to check his progress. He was resisted seriously at Corydon, and a large force of Federals under General Hobson pressed hard after him as he made his way in a circuit through the southeastern part of the State. He crossed the Ohio line at the town of Harrison and passed to the north of Cincinnati. By this time, however, State troops began to swarm around the raiders, and the latter attempted to regain the Ohio River. There they were confronted by gunboats and turned back. The forces of Morgan melted away under pressure and constant fighting, until he came to the town of New Lisbon, Ohio, where he was surrounded and captured by the brigade of General Shackelford. The Confederate leader was imprisoned in the Ohio penitentiary; but he succeeded in making his escape from that place, fled to Kentucky, and finally reached Richmond.

ATTACK ON CHARLESTON AND DEATH OF JACKSON.

In the meantime minor but important operations had been carried forward along the sea-coast. On the first day of 1863 General Marnaduke captured Galveston, Texas, thus



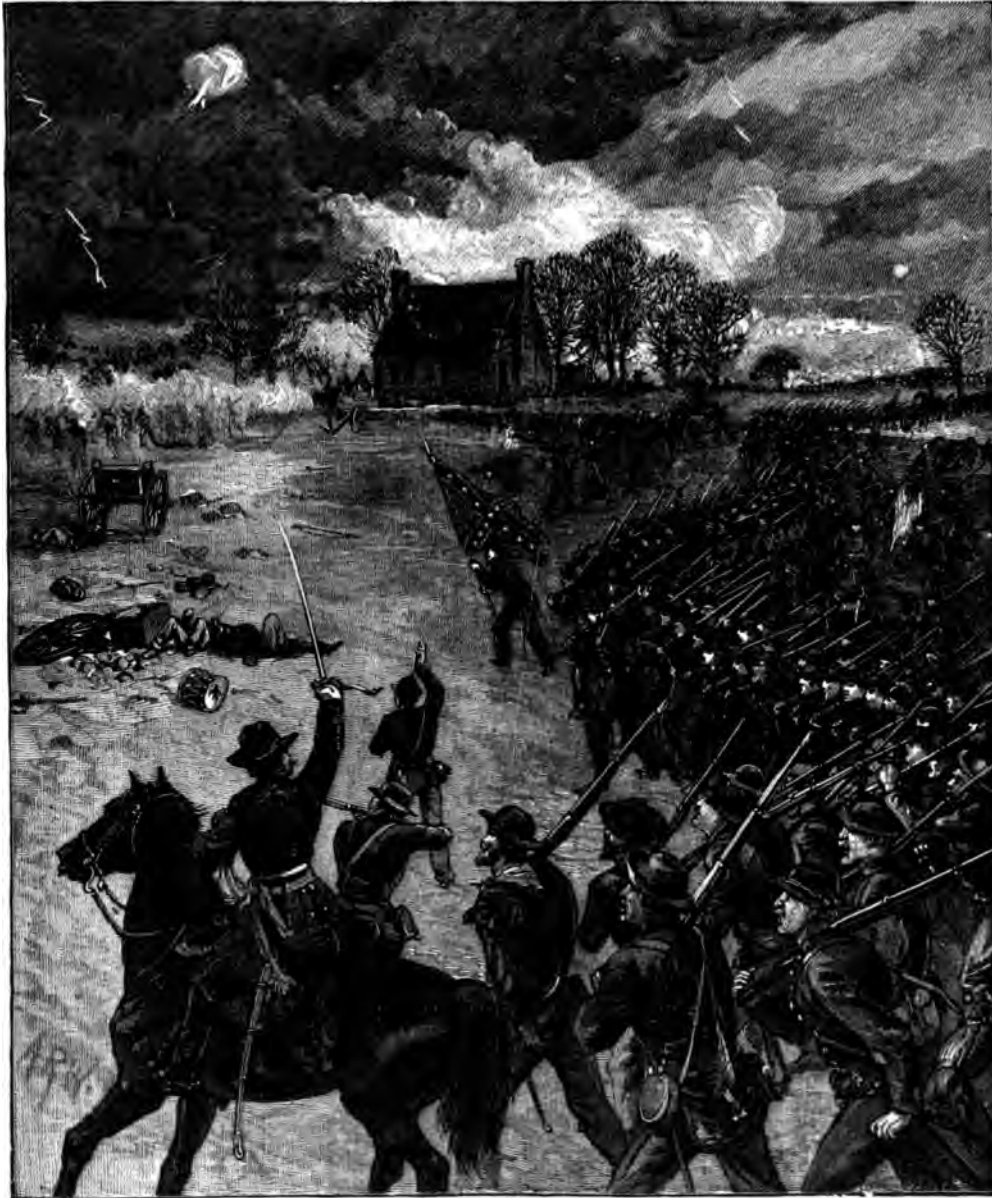
STONEWALL JACKSON BEFORE THE BATTLE.

securing for the Confederate States a much-needed port of entry. On the 7th of April Admiral Dupont, with a fleet of ironclads and monitors, made a descent on Charleston, but was driven back from the city. In the latter part of June the effort was renewed in conjunction with a land force under command of General Q. A. Gilmore. The Federal army gained a lodgment on Folly and Morris islands, where batteries were planted bearing on Forts Sumter and Wagner. On the 18th of July an assault was made on Fort Wagner, but the Federals were repulsed with a loss of more than fifteen hundred men. Early in September the Confederates evacuated Wagner and Battery Gregg, whence they retired into Charleston. Gilmore, acting in conjunction with Admiral Dahlgren, was able to plant batteries within four miles of the city. The lower part of Charleston was bombarded and one side of Fort Sumter pounded into powder. The fort, however, could not be taken, and the only present gain to the Federals was the establishment of a blockade so

complete as to seal up the port of Charleston.

In the meantime the Army of the Potomac had had its share of vicissitude and battle. After the repulse at Fredericksburg, General Burnside resigned the command, and was superseded by General Joseph Hooker. The latter advanced in the after part of April, crossed the Rappahannock and the Rapidan and reached Chancellorsville. Here, on the evening of the 2d of May, he was attacked by the Army of Northern Virginia, under command of Lee and Jackson. The latter general, at the head of twenty-five thousand men.

succeeded by extraordinary daring in outflanking the Union army, and swept down like a thunder-blast upon the right wing, dashing everything to destruction as he came. But it was the last of Stonewall's battles. As night came on and ruin seemed to impend over the Federal army, the Confederate leader, in the confusion of the scene, received a volley from



BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.

his own lines, and fell mortally wounded. He lingered a week, and died at Guinea Station, leaving a gap in the Confederate ranks never to be filled.

The Union right wing was rallied and restored. On the morning of the 3d the Confederates were checked in their career of victory. General Sedgwick, who had attempted to reinforce Hooker at Fredericksburg, was attacked and driven across the Rappahannock.

The Union army was forced into a comparatively small space between Chancellorsville and the river, where it remained in the utmost peril until the evening of the 5th, when Hooker succeeded in withdrawing his forces to the northern bank. The Union losses amounted to about seventeen thousand, while those of the Confederates were hardly five thousand in number. At no time during the war did the Union cause appear to a greater disadvantage in the East than after the disastrous battle of Chancellorsville.

It was at this period that General Stoneman conducted his successful cavalry raid into Virginia. His movement was coincident with that of Hooker to Chancellorsville. On the 29th of April, Stoneman, crossing the Rappahannock, tore up the Virginia Central railway and pushed ahead to the Chickahominy. He succeeded in cutting Lee's communications,

swept around within a few miles of Richmond, and on the 8th of May recrossed the Rappahannock in safety. Another event serving to mitigate the Union disasters at Chancellorsville was the successful defence of Suffolk, on the Nansemond river, by General Peck against the siege conducted by General Longstreet.

INVASION OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The Confederates were greatly elated with their successes on the Rappahannock, and General Lee determined upon a counter-invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania. In the first week of June he crossed the Potomac with his whole army and captured Hagerstown. On the 22d of the month he reached Chambers-



SEAT OF WAR FROM HARPER'S FERRY TO SUFFOLK, VA.

burg, and then pressed on through Carlisle, in the direction of Harrisburg. The invasion produced the greatest excitement. The militia of Pennsylvania was hurriedly called out, and volunteers by the thousand poured in from other States. General Hooker threw forward the Army of the Potomac to confront his antagonist. It became evident that a great and decisive battle was at hand.

General Lee concentrated his forces near the village of Gettysburg, capital of Adams county, Pennsylvania, and the Union army was likewise gathered on the highlands beyond the town. On the very eve of battle the command of the Federal forces was transferred from General Hooker to General George G. Meade—a dangerous experiment in the face of so overwhelming a contingency. Meade drew up his army through the hill-country in the direction of Gettysburg. After two years of indecisive though bloody warfare, it now

seemed that the fate of the war, and possibly of the American republic, was to be staked on the issue of a single battle.

On the morning of the 1st of July the Union advance under Generals Reynolds and Beauford, moving out westward from Gettysburg, encountered the Confederate division of General A. P. Hill coming upon the road from Hagerstown, and the struggle began. In the afternoon both divisions were strongly reinforced, and a severe battle was fought for the possession of Seminary ridge. The Confederates were victorious, and the Union advance line was forced back from its position through the village to the high grounds on the south.

Such was the initial passage of the battle. The Federal lines were now drawn up in a convex position reaching from the eminence called Round Top, where the left wing rested, around the crest of the ridges to Cemetery Hill, where the centre was posted. From this position the lines extended to Wolf Hill, on Rock creek. The position was well chosen and strong, and the whole Union army, with the exception of Sedgwick's corps, was brought forward into position during the night of the 1st. The Confederate forces were likewise thrown into advantageous lines on Seminary ridge, and on the high grounds to the left of Rock creek. The semi-circle was about five miles in extent. The cavalry divisions, both Federal and Confederate, hung upon the flanks of the respective armies, doing effective service, but hardly participating in the main conflicts of the centre.

BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

With the morning of July 2d the battle was begun by General Longstreet, who commanded the Confederate right. That officer moved forward with impetuosity and fell upon the Union left under General Sickles. The struggle for the possession of Great and Little Round Tops was terrific and lasted until six o'clock in the evening. The close of the day found those strong positions still in the hands of the Federals; but the fighting on the whole had been favorable to the Confederates. In the centre, meanwhile, a battle had been fought for the greater part of the day, the contention being for the mastery of Cemetery Hill which was the key to the Federal position. In this part of the field the national line, though hard pressed by the Confederates, preserved its integrity until nightfall. On the Union right the Confederate onset was more successful, and that wing of the army commanded by General Slocum was to a considerable extent broken by the assaults of A. P. Hill. At ten o'clock at night, however, when the fighting ceased, it was found that the two armies held virtually the same position as at the beginning of the battle—this, not-



BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG, JULY 1, 2, 3, 1863.

withstanding the fact that nearly forty thousand Union and Confederate dead and wounded already bore evidence of the portentous character of the conflict.

The national forces were now on the defensive. The Confederates in order to succeed must advance. Otherwise the invasion would end in defeat and disaster. The Confederate army must break through the opposing wall or be hurled back from the assault. Lee did not flinch from the great exigency before him. During the night both generals prepared for a renewal of the battle on the morrow. With the coming of morning, however, both seemed loath to begin. Doubtless both were well aware of the critical nature of the conflict. The whole nation, indeed, realized on the morning of the 3d of July that the crisis of the Civil War had been reached, and that perhaps before sunset the issue would be decided for or against the American Union.

The forenoon of that tremendous day was spent in preparations. There was small and desultory fighting here and there but nothing decisive. At midday there was a lull along



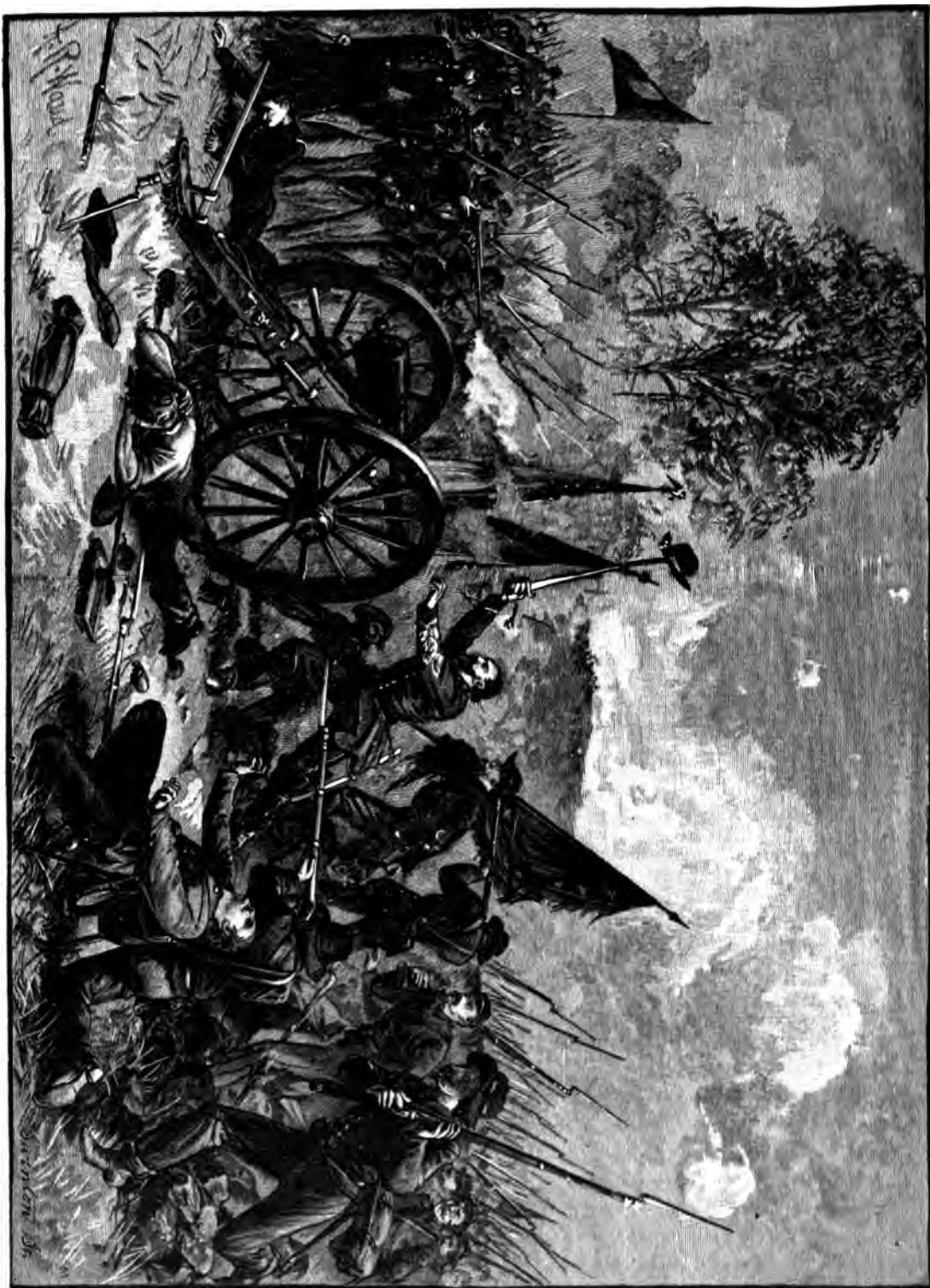
REPULSING A CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG.

the whole line. Then burst forth the fiercest cannonade ever known on the American continent. For about two hours the hills and surrounding country were shaken with the thunders of more than two hundred heavy guns. The Confederate artillery was concentrated against the Union centre at Cemetery Hill, and this place became a scene of indescribable uproar and death. About two o'clock the Union batteries, under the direction of General Hunt, drew back beyond the crest in order to cool the guns and also for economy of ammunition.

The slacking of the fire was construed by the Confederates as signifying that their cannonade had been successful. Then came the crisis. The roar of the great guns in a measure ceased. A Confederate column numbering eighteen thousand men and about three-fourths of a mile in length, headed by the Virginians under Pickett, moved forward in a desperate charge against the Union centre.

The scene that ensued was doubtless the finest military spectacle ever witnessed west of the Atlantic; but the onset was in vain. The brave men who made it were mowed down with terrible slaughter. The head of the Confederate column succeeded in striking the Union line; but there it sank to the earth. Then the whole division was hurled back in ruin and rout. Victory hovered over the national army and it only remained for Lee with his broken legions to turn back towards the Potomac.

The losses on both sides were prodigious. That of the Confederates—though never



PICKETT'S CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG.

formally reported—was nearly thirty thousand. The Federals lost in killed, wounded and missing twenty-three thousand and one hundred and eighty-six, making a total of *more than fifty thousand men!* It was strongly hoped by the Government that when the Confederates were driven back in retreat General Meade would be able by a counter attack to spring upon and destroy the forces of his antagonist before they could recross the river; but the condition of the Union army was so dreadful that the desired movement could not be undertaken. General Lee withdrew his forces into Virginia and the Federals soon took up their old positions on the Potomac and the Rappahannock.

RIOTS FOLLOWING THE CONSCRIPTION ACT.

Notwithstanding the overwhelming success of the Union cause at Vicksburg and Gettysburg, the national administration was pressed with mountains of difficulty. The war debt was piling up to infinity. As a matter of fact, the war must soon end or national bankruptcy ensue. The last call for volunteers had not been fully met and there were those in the North who, on account of political animosity rejoiced in the embarrassments of the Government and threw obstacles in the way of its success. The anti-war party becoming bold and open, denounced the measures of Congress and the military conduct of the war. On the 3d of March, 1863, the Conscription Act was passed by Congress and two months afterwards the President ordered a general draft of three hundred thousand men. All able-bodied citizens between the ages of twenty and forty-five were subjected to the requisition.

This Conscription Act added fuel to the fires of opposition. The Government was bitterly denounced. In many parts of the Border States the draft-officers were resisted. On the 13th of July, notwithstanding the recent successes of the Union armies and the prospective end of the war, a serious riot occurred in New York city. A vast mob rose in arms, attacked the offices of the provost-marshals, burned the Colored Orphan Asylum, drove back the police and killed about a hundred people, most of whom were negroes. For three days the mob had virtual possession of the city. Governor Seymour came down from Albany and made to the rioters a mild-mannered speech, promising that the draft should be suspended and advising the crowds to disperse. Little heed was given to this soft-toned admonition, and General Wool, commander of the military district of New York, was obliged to take the matter in hand. Even he, with the forces at his disposal, was not able at first to put down the insurrection. At this juncture, however, some volunteer regiments came trooping home from Gettysburg. The Metropolitan police was organized for the assault and the insurgents were scattered with a strong hand. The story of Vicksburg and Gettysburg threw a damper over these treasonable proceedings and acts of domestic violence ceased. Opposition to the war, however, was still rampant in many parts of the North and on the 19th of August, 1863, President Lincoln was constrained to issue a proclamation suspending the writ of *habeas corpus* throughout the Union.

The sequel showed the ineffectiveness of the conscription as a method of filling the Union armies. Only about fifty thousand men were added to the national forces by the draft. In other respects, however, the measure was salutary. It was seen that the Government would not hesitate, in the last resort, to draw upon the human resources of the country by force. Volunteering and the employment of substitutes became the order of the day, and the ranks of the Union army were constantly strengthened by new recruits. Such, however, were the terrible losses in camp and field that in October of 1863 the President found it necessary to issue another call for three hundred thousand men. By these active measures the Federal army was not only maintained in its integrity, but constantly increased in volume and effectiveness.

It now became apparent that the Confederacy was weakening. With the approach of winter the disparity between the Federal and the Confederate forces began to be apparent to the whole world. The armies of the South already showed symptoms of exhaustion ; and the most rigorous conscription was necessary to fill the thinning and breaking ranks. It was on the 20th of June of this year that West Virginia, separated from the Old Dominion, was organized and admitted as the thirty-fifth State in the Union.

RAIDS OF GENERAL FORREST.

The Union Generals waited anxiously for the spring of 1864. Military operations with the opening of the season were first begun in the West. Early in February General Sherman left Vicksburg with the purpose of destroying the railways of Eastern Mississippi. He advanced to Meridian, where on the 15th of the month he began the destruction of the tracks from Mobile to Corinth and from Vicksburg to Montgomery. This work was carried on with fearful rapidity for a distance of a hundred and fifty miles. Bridges were burned, locomotives and cars destroyed and vast quantities of cotton and corn given to the flames. Sherman had expected to be joined at Meridian by a Federal cavalry force under General Smith, but the latter officer was met on the advance by the Confederate cavalry under Forrest and was driven back to Memphis. Sherman, disappointed by this failure, returned to Vicksburg; while Forrest continued his raid northward into Tennessee. On the 24th of March he captured Union city and then pressed on to Paducah, Kentucky, where he attacked Fort Anderson, but was repulsed. Turning back into Tennessee he assaulted Fort Pillow, seventy miles north of Memphis. The place was defended by five hundred and sixty soldiers, about half of whom were negroes. Forrest demanding a surrender and being refused, carried the fort by storm and nearly all the negro soldiers were slain.



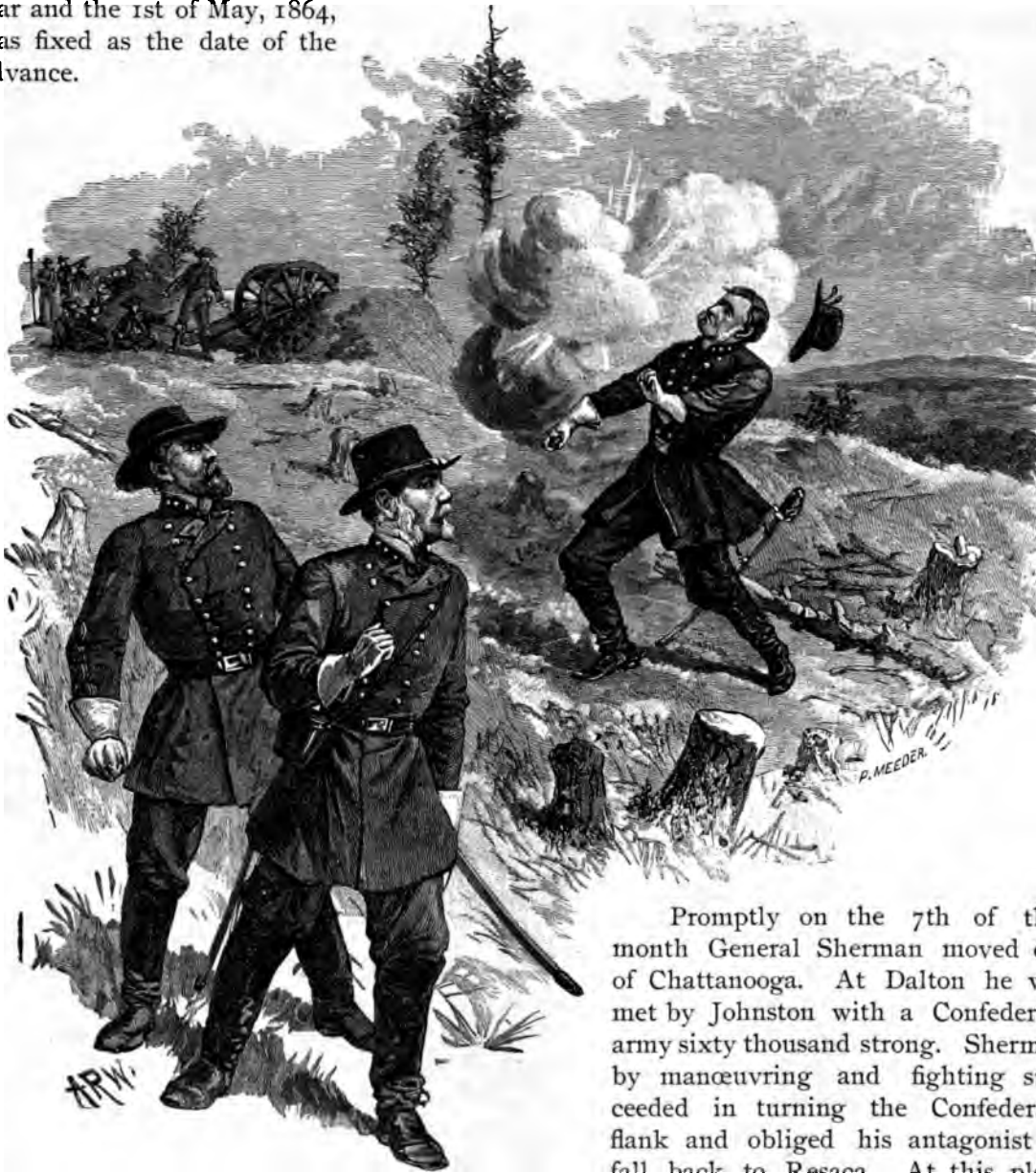
FORREST LEADING HIS ROUGH RIDERS.

DISASTROUS RESULTS OF THE RED RIVER EXPEDITION.

To the spring of 1864 belongs the story of the Red River Expedition of General Banks. The plan of this campaign embraced the movement of a strong land-force up Red River, supported by a fleet under Admiral Porter. The object was the capture of Shreveport, Louisiana. The Federal army advanced in three divisions, under Generals Smith, Banks and Steele. On the 14th of March Smith's division reached Fort de Russy, which was taken by assault. On the 16th Alexandria was occupied by the Federals and on the 19th Natchitoches was captured. At this point the road departed from the river and the army and the gunboats were separated. The fleet proceeded up the stream towards Shreveport and the land-forces whirled off in a circuit to the left.

On the 8th of April the Union advance approaching the town of Mansfield was suddenly attacked by the Confederates in full force. The Federals were completely routed and were pursued as far as Pleasant Hill. Here a second battle was fought in which the hard fighting

numbering a hundred thousand men, was to march against Atlanta, which was defended by the Confederates under General Johnston. To these two great movements all other military operations were subordinated. Grant sent his orders to Sherman for the grand beginning which was destined to end the war and the 1st of May, 1864, was fixed as the date of the advance.



DEATH OF GENERAL POLK.

Promptly on the 7th of that month General Sherman moved out of Chattanooga. At Dalton he was met by Johnston with a Confederate army sixty thousand strong. Sherman by manœuvring and fighting succeeded in turning the Confederate flank and obliged his antagonist to fall back to Resaca. At this place on the 14th and 15th of May two hard

battles were fought in which the Union army was victorious. The Confederates retreated by way of Calhoun and Kingston to Dallas. At the latter place Johnston made a second stand. On the 28th of May he was attacked, outnumbered, outflanked and compelled to fall back to Lost Mountain. From this position he was forced in like manner, on the 17th of June, after three days of desultory fighting.

Johnston made his next stand at Great and Little Kenesaw Mountains. Here a line was formed and on the 22d of June General Hood fiercely assaulted the Union centre, but was repulsed with heavy losses. Five days afterwards Sherman made an assault with great audacity and attempted to carry Kenesaw by storm, but he was hurled back with a loss of nearly three thousand men. The Union commander, however, at once resumed his former tactics, outflanked his antagonist and on the 3d of July drove him across the Chattahoochee. A week later the whole Confederate army was crowded back within the defences of Atlanta.

Then followed the siege of that city. Atlanta was, after Richmond, the most important seat of power within the limits of the Confederacy. Here were located the machine shops, foundries, car works and depots of supplies upon the possession of which the Confederate cause so much depended. The government at Richmond now became deeply dis-

satisfied with the military policy of General Joseph E. Johnston. That cautious and skilful commander had adopted the Fabian policy of falling back before the superior forces of Sherman and of conserving as much as possible the energies of his army. This method, however, displeased President Davis and when the siege of Atlanta was begun Johnston was deposed from command and was succeeded by the rash but daring General J. B. Hood. The opinion prevailed that the latter would fight at whatever hazard and this view of his military character was borne out by the facts. On the 20th, 22d and 28th of July he made three successive and desperate assaults on the Union lines around Atlanta; but in each engagement the Confederates were



repulsed with dreadful losses. It was in the beginning of the second of these battles that the brave General James B. McPherson, the bosom friend of Generals Grant and Sherman and the pride of the Union army, was killed while reconnoitering the Confederate lines. In the three battles just referred to Hood lost more men than Johnston had lost in all his masterly retreating and fighting between Chattanooga and Atlanta.

Around the latter city Sherman daily tightened his grip. At last by an incautious movement Hood opened his line; the Union commander thrust a column into the gap, and the immediate evacuation of Atlanta followed. On the 2d of September the city was occupied by Sherman's army. The campaign from Chattanooga up to this point of progress had cost the Federals in killed, wounded and missing, fully thirty thousand men, and the Confederate losses were even greater.

DEFEAT OF HOOD AND CAPTURE OF ATLANTA.

By abandoning Atlanta Hood saved his army. He formed the plan of striking boldly northward into Tennessee, with the hope of compelling Sherman to evacuate Georgia; but

the latter had no thought of relinquishing his ground; he followed Hood north of the Chattahoochee, and then turned back to Atlanta. The Confederate commander continued his march through Northern Alabama, reached Florence, on the Tennessee, and pressed on towards Nashville. General Thomas, with the Army of the Cumberland, had in the meantime been detached from Sherman's army and sent northward to confront Hood. General Schofield with the Federal forces in Tennessee fell back before the Confederates and took post at Franklin, eighteen miles distant from Nashville. Hood pressed on, and on the 30th of November attacked the Federal position. A hard battle was fought, and the Confederates were held in check until Schofield succeeded during the night in crossing the river and making himself secure within the defences of Nashville. At that place General Thomas also concentrated his forces and a line of intrenchments was drawn around the city on the south.

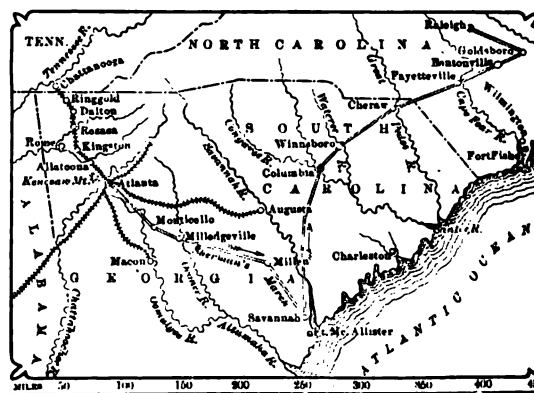
Hood came on confident of victory. He began a siege by blockading the Cumberland, and there was general alarm through the North lest Thomas might be pressed to the wall. That commander, however, on the 15th of December, moved out from his works, attacked the Confederate army and routed it with a loss in killed, wounded and prisoners, of fully twenty-five thousand men! For many days of freezing weather he pursued the disorganized Confederate forces, until the remnants found refuge in Alabama. Hood's division of the Confederate forces was ruined, and he himself, with the misfortune of unsuccess, was relieved of his command.

Meanwhile, on the 14th of November, General Sherman burned Atlanta and set out on his famous march to the sea. His army of veterans numbered sixty thousand men. The advance was begun with confidence, for Sherman expected the destruction of Hood's army in Tennessee. It was clear that the Confederates had no adequate force with which to oppose him in front. He accordingly cut his communications with the North, abandoned his base of supplies, and struck out for the sea-coast, more than two hundred and fifty miles away. On leaving Atlanta, he was lost to sight in the forests of Georgia, but was followed by the unwavering faith of General Grant and of the people of the North.

The Confederates were able to offer no further successful resistance. The Union army swept on through Macon and Milledgeville, crossed the Ogeechee, captured Gibson and Waynesborough, and on the 10th of December arrived in the vicinity of Savannah. Three days afterwards Fort McAlister, below that city, was carried by the division of General Hazen. On the night of the 20th, General Hardee, the Confederate commandant, escaped from Savannah, and with fifteen thousand men made his way to Charleston. On the next morning Sherman entered the city, and on the 22d established there his headquarters. His total losses from Atlanta to the coast had been but five hundred and sixty-seven men.

THE TRAIL OF DESTRUCTION AND SURRENDER OF CHARLESTON.

The Union army remained in Savannah during the month of January, 1865. On the 1st of February, General Sherman began his campaign against Columbia, the capital of South Carolina. To the Confederates the further progress of the Union army through the

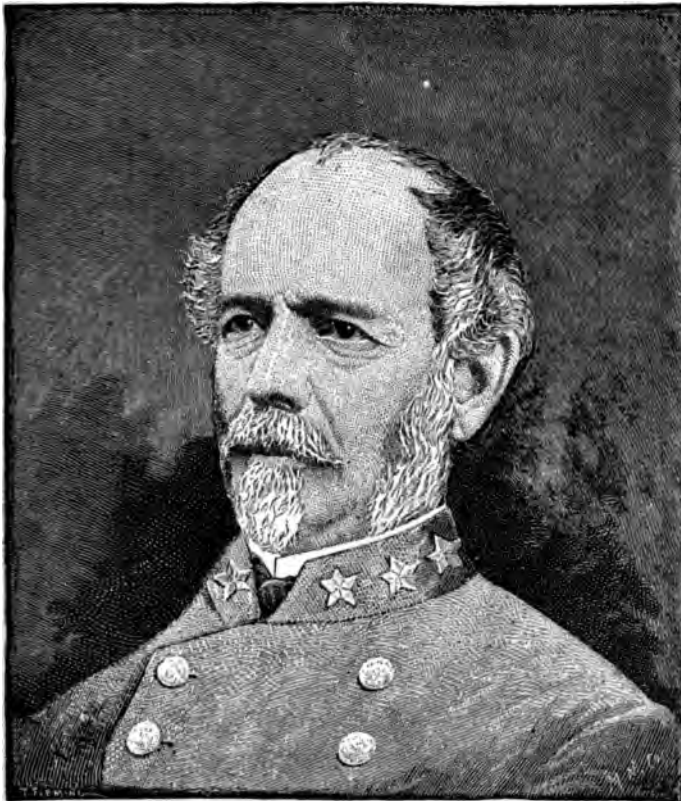


SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA, 1864.

swamps and morasses of the State had seemed an impossibility; but the veteran legions were now thoroughly hardened to all forms of exposure and trial, and their progress was little impeded. Alarm and terror pervaded the country. Governor Magrath summoned into the field every white man in the State between the ages of sixteen and sixty; but the requisition was comparatively ineffectual. The Confederates formed a line of defence on the Salkehatchie, but were unable to prevent Sherman's progress. The river was crossed by the Federals on the 11th of February, and Charleston and Augusta were cut off from Confederate support. On the 12th, the city of Orangeburg was taken by the seventeenth corps. Two days afterwards the Federal army crossed the Congaree, on the high road to

Columbia. Then followed the passage of the Broad and Saluda Rivers. On the 17th Mayor Goodwin and a committee of the Common Council of Columbia came out and surrendered the city.

Hereupon General Hardee determined to abandon Charleston and to join Beauregard and Johnston in North Carolina. On the day of the capture of Columbia he detailed guards to destroy the warehouses, stores of cotton and depots of the city. The station of the Northwestern Railroad, where magazines were stored, blew up with terrific violence, and two hundred people were buried in the ruins. Four squares in the best part of the city were laid in ashes. Hardee, with fourteen thousand men, escaped and made his way northward. On the next morning the national forces on James and Morris Islands learned of the evacuation, and before noon the stars and



GENERAL JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.

stripes were again raised over Forts Sumter, Ripley and Pinckney. Mayor Macbeth surrendered Charleston to a force which was sent over from Morris Island. As much as might be saved from the conflagration was rescued by citizens and Federal soldiers working together. The principal arsenal and a storehouse of rice were preserved and the contents of the latter distributed to the poor. Colonel Stewart L. Woodford, of New York, was appointed military governor of the city.

At Columbia Sherman gave orders for the destruction of all public property and then immediately renewed his march northward. His course was now in the direction of Charlotte, North Carolina. The Federals swept on unopposed to Winnsborough, where a junction was effected with the twentieth corps under Slocum. The march was continued to Fayetteville, where Sherman arrived and took possession on the 11th of March.

In the meantime a dashing cavalry battle had occurred between the forces of Generals

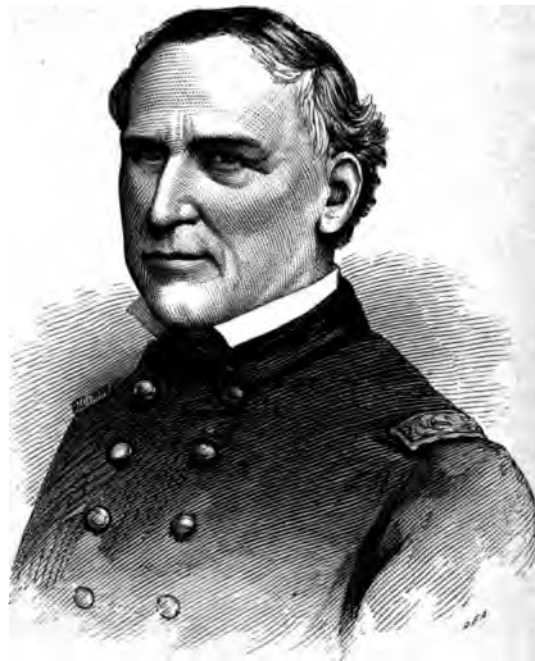
Hampton and Kilpatrick. The former officer had been directed to defend the rear of Hardee's column on its retreat from Charleston. In the first engagement Kilpatrick succeeded in cutting through the Confederate lines, but on the next morning he was in turn attacked in his quarters, routed and reduced to the straits of making his escape on foot into a swamp. He succeeded at length, however, in rallying his forces, returning to the conflict and scattering the Confederates in a brilliant charge. Hampton then rallied, but Kilpatrick was able to hold his ground until reinforced by a part of the twentieth corps when the Confederates were finally repulsed. Kilpatrick reached Fayetteville without further attack and joined the other divisions of the army.

CLOSING BATTLES OF THE WAR.

The destruction of Hood in Tennessee was the signal for a reaction in favor of General Joseph E. Johnston. That officer was recalled to the command. His influence now began to be felt in front of Sherman. The Union advance was rendered more difficult by the vigilance of the Confederate General. At Averasborough, a short distance north of Fayetteville, Hardee made a stand, but was repulsed with considerable loss. On the 19th of March Sherman's advance was furiously assailed by the Confederates at Bentonville. For the hour it seemed that the Union army, after all its battles and victories, was in danger of defeat, but the brilliant fighting of the division of General Jefferson C. Davis saved the day, and on the twenty-first of the month Sherman entered Goldsborough unopposed. Here he was reinforced by the division of Schofield, from New Berne, and that of Terry, from Wilmington.

The Federal army now set out for Raleigh, and reached that city on the 13th of April. This was the end of the great march, and here General Sherman met his antagonist, and entered into negotiations for the surrender of the Confederate army. Lee had already surrendered to Grant at Appomattox. Sherman agreed with Johnston, most unfortunately, to discuss the terms of a general settlement of civil affairs in the South, but these negotiations were suddenly cut off by dispatches from the Government at Washington and by the arrival of General Grant, who was directed to grant to Johnston the same terms already conceded to Lee. This was accordingly done, and the Confederate army was surrendered on the 26th of April.

While these decisive events were taking place in Carolina the great cavalry raid of General Stoneman was in progress. About the middle of March that officer left Knoxville with six thousand men, crossed the mountains, and captured Wilkesborough. He then crossed the Yadkin, and turning to the north traversed the western end of North Carolina. He entered Virginia, destroyed the railway at Wytheville, and as far as within four miles

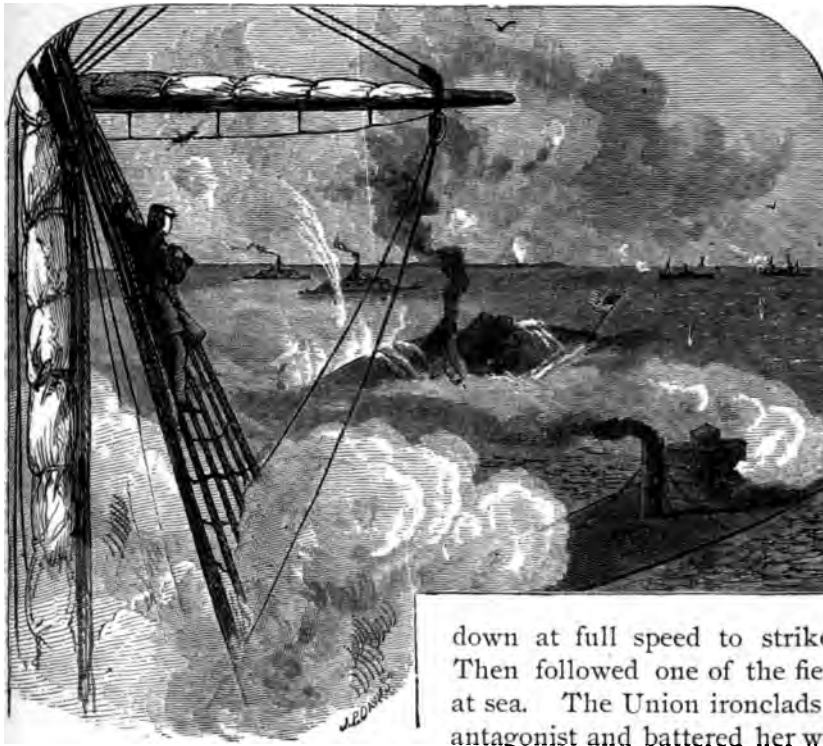


ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT.

of Lynchburg. Christiansburg was captured, and other railway tracks destroyed for a distance of ninety miles. The expedition turned thence to Jacksonville; thence southward to the North Carolina Railway between Danville and Greensborough. This track also was destroyed and the factories at Salem burned. Stoneman then captured Salisbury and the great Confederate prison for Federal soldiers, but the prisoners were removed before the arrival of the Union cavalry. On the 19th of April the great bridge of the South Carolina Railway, spanning the Catawba river, was set on fire and destroyed. The Federals then concentrated at Dallas and the raid was at an end. Stoneman had taken during the campaign six thousand prisoners, forty-six pieces of artillery and immense quantities of small arms and munitions.

FARRAGUT BEFORE MOBILE.

Meanwhile, on the sea-coast events of great importance had occurred. Early in August, 1864, Admiral David G. Farragut made a descent with a powerful squadron upon Mobile. The harbor of that city was strongly defended by a Confederate fleet, by batteries on the shore and by the monster ironclad ram *Tennessee*. On the 5th of August,



NAVAL BATTLE IN MOBILE BAY.

Farragut succeeded in running past Forts Gaines and Morgan. Once in the harbor with his fleet, he mounted to the maintop of his flagship, the *Hartford*, where he was lashed to the rigging. From this high perch he gave his commands during the battle. One Union ship struck a torpedo and went to the bottom. The rest attacked and dispersed the Confederate squadron, but in the midst of success the ram *Tennessee* came

down at full speed to strike and sink the *Hartford*. Then followed one of the fiercest conflicts ever known at sea. The Union ironclads closed around their black antagonist and battered her with their beaks and fifteen-inch bolts of iron until she surrendered. The harbor

was cleared. On the 7th of August Fort Gaines was taken and on the 23d Fort Morgan capitulated. Mobile was thus effectually sealed up to the Confederates.

Of like importance was the capture of Fort Fisher. This powerful fortress standing at the mouth of Cape Fear River commanded the entrance to Wilmington—the last seaport held by the Confederacy. In December, 1864, Admiral Porter was sent with the greatest American armament ever afloat to besiege and capture the fort. General Butler accompanied the expedition with a division of six thousand five hundred men. On the day before Christmas the bombardment of Fort Fisher was begun. General Weitzel was sent

ashore to carry the place by storm, but coming near to the fort he decided that an assault could only end in the destruction of his army. This belief was shared by General Butler and the enterprise was abandoned. Admiral Porter, however, remained before the fort with his fleet, while the land forces under Butler returned to Fortress Monroe.

The result of the expedition was considered humiliating by the national authority. Early in January of 1865 the same troops were sent back to Wilmington under General Terry. The siege was renewed by the combined army and fleet, and on the 15th of the month Fort Fisher was taken by assault. It was the last seaport of the Confederates, and their outlet to the ocean and foreign nations was thus forever closed.

In the meantime the control of Albemarle Sound had been recovered by a daring exploit of Lieutenant Cushing of the Federal navy. The sound was held by a tremendous Confederate iron ram called the *Albemarle*. Cushing gathered a band of volunteers and on the night of the 27th of October entered the Roanoke and approached the ram lying at anchor at Plymouth. He managed to draw alongside and with his own hands sank a terrible torpedo under the Confederate ship, exploded it and left the ram a ruin. All of the attacking party except Cushing and one other were either killed or taken in the adventure.

At the outbreak of the war the Confederate Congress authorized the fitting out of privateers to prey upon the commerce of the United States. True, the independence of the Confederacy was not acknowledged by foreign nations and the Confederate cruisers were therefore not allowed to carry their prizes into neutral ports. The work of capture was thus of little direct benefit to the Confederacy, but of prodigious injury to the United States.

DAMAGE INFLICTED BY THE PRIVATEERS.

The first Confederate privateer was the *Savannah*; but this ship was captured on the very day of her escape from Charleston. In June of 1861 the *Sumter*, under command of Captain Raphael Semmes, ran the blockade of New Orleans, and for seven months wrought havoc with the merchant ships of the United States. In February of 1862 Semmes was chased into the harbor of Gibraltar and was obliged to save himself by selling his vessel and discharging his crew. Meanwhile in October, 1861, the *Nashville* escaped from Charleston, went on a cruise to England, and returned with a cargo worth \$3,000,000. In March of 1863, this vessel was sunk by a Union ironclad in the mouth of the Savannah.

The Federal blockade soon closed around the Confederate ports. It became more and more difficult for privateers to break through and gain the freedom of the seas. The Confederates now sought the shipyards of Great Britain, and in spite of all remonstrances were permitted to use that vantage ground for the building, the purchase and equipment of privateers. In the harbor of Liverpool the *Florida* was fitted out. In the summer of 1862, this ship ran into Molbale Bay and in the following January escaped therefrom to destroy fifteen Union merchantmen. She was finally captured in the harbor of Bahia, Brazil, brought into Hampton Roads, and there by an accidental collision was sent to the bottom.

Meanwhile, at the shipyards of Glasgow were built the *Georgia*, the *Olustee*, the *Shenandoah* and the *Chickamauga*. All these went to sea and made havoc with the commerce of the United States. When Fort Fisher was taken the *Chickamauga* and another privateer called the *Tallahassee* were blown up by the Confederates. The *Georgia* had already been captured and the *Shenandoah* continued afloat until the end of the war.

The most famous and destructive of all Confederate cruisers was the *Alabama*. Her commander was Raphael Semmes, who had lost the *Sumter* at Gibraltar. A majority of the crew of the *Alabama* were British subjects. Her armament was wholly British, and

whenever the occasion required the British flag was carried ! During her career she destroyed sixty-six vessels, entailing a loss of ten millions of dollars to the merchant service of the United States ; but she never once entered a Confederate port. The difference between such work and piracy would be far to seek.

In the summer of 1864 Semmes was followed to the harbor of Cherbourg, France, by Captain John A. Winslow, of the steamer *Kearsarge*. Semmes was soon ordered by the French government to leave the port. On the 19th of June he sailed out and gave battle. Seven miles from shore the two ships closed, and after a desperate battle of an hour's dura-



SINKING OF THE ALABAMA BY THE KEARSARGE.

tion the *Alabama* was shattered and sunk. Semmes and a part of his officers and crew were picked up by the English yacht *Greyhound*, which had come out to witness the fight, and carried to Southampton where they were set at liberty !

CLOSING BATTLES OF THE WAR.

We now turn to the critical and final campaigns of the Army of the Potomac and of those divisions of the Union forces which were associated with it. After Gettysburg, Lee withdrew into the Shenandoah valley, whither he was followed by the Union cavalry under General Gregg as far as Shepherdstown, where an advantage was gained over General Fitzhugh Lee with the cavalry of the Confederates. General Meade with the army of the Potomac entered Virginia and moved forward to Warrenton. The Blue Ridge was thus

interposed between the two armies, and it was the hope of Meade to prevent the return of his antagonist to Richmond ; but Lee with his usual sagacity made a feint towards Manassas Gap and then by a rapid march gained Front Royal and Chester Gap, passed through and reached Culpeper. Meade took up his old position on the Rappahannock.

A lull now followed during the summer of 1863. Both armies were greatly weakened by battle and the withdrawal of troops for campaigns in distant parts. Longstreet was detached from Lee to assist Bragg and Howard and Slocum were detached from the Army of the Potomac. Active operations were not resumed until October, when both Generals assumed the offensive ; but Meade was after much manœuvring obliged to post himself on the heights of Centreville. Lee rested on the Upper Rappahannock. And so came the winter of 1864.

BATTLES OF THE WILDERNESS.

With the following spring General Grant became commander-in-chief of the Union armies. He retained Meade in the immediate command of the Army of the Potomac, but made his own headquarters with that army during the remainder of the war. The campaign which was now to ensue was destined to be one of the most memorable of modern warfare. The forward movement of the Army of the Potomac was undertaken with the beginning of May. On the 3d of that month the national camp at Culpeper was broken up and the march on Richmond begun. On the first day Grant crossed the Rapidan and entered that country of oak woods and thickets called the Wilderness, lying west of Chancellorsville. Here the Union army was confronted and attacked. Through the 5th, 6th and 7th of May the fighting continued incessantly with terrible losses on both sides, but with indecisive results. Lee retired within his intrenchments and Grant made a flank movement in the direction of Spottsylvania Courthouse. On the 8th there was a lull, but from the morning of the 9th to the night of the 12th ensued one of the bloodiest struggles of the war. The Federals gained some ground and the division of General Ewell was captured. But the losses of Lee who fought on the defensive were less dreadful than those of his antagonist.

While this struggle of the Wilderness was going on, General Sheridan with the cavalry of the Army of Potomac had conducted a raid around Lee's army against Richmond. The movement was executed with all the audacity for which Sheridan had become famous. He crossed the North Anna, retook a large detachment of Union prisoners and on the 10th of May, at Yellow Tavern, fought a victorious battle with the Confederate cavalry under General J. E. B. Stuart, who was mortally wounded on the field.

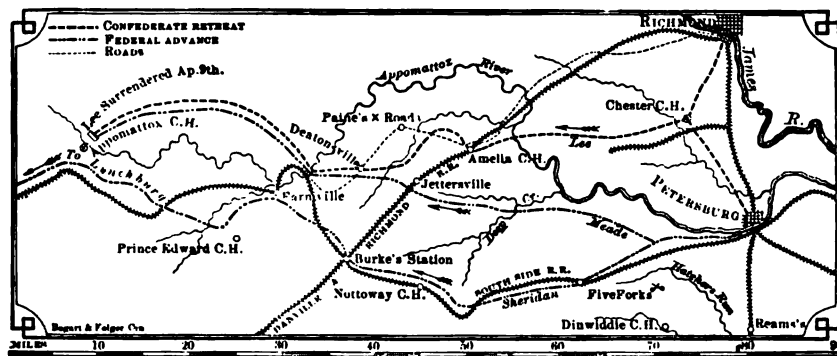
Grant now continued to move slowly by the left flank. He crossed the Pamunkey to Hanover town and reached Cold Harbor, twelve miles northeast of Richmond. Here on the 1st of June he attacked the Confederates and was repulsed with heavy loss. On the morning of the 3d the assault was renewed and in the brief space of half an hour nearly ten thousand Union soldiers were killed or wounded before the Confederate intrenchments. The Federal repulse was complete, but the grim commander held his lines as firmly as ever and continued the campaign.

Since the crossing of the Rapidan the Army of the Potomac, including the corps of Burnside, had now lost the enormous aggregate of sixty thousand men. During the same period the Confederates had lost in killed, wounded and prisoners, about thirty-five thousand. Nevertheless, the fight was going against the Confederacy. The weight of the Union pressure was ever increased and the power of resistance was ever weakened. Grant was imperturbable. After his unsuccess at Cold Harbor he determined to change his base to James River, with a view to the capture of Petersburg and the subsequent conquest of Richmond from this direction.

BEFORE THE OUTPOSTS OF RICHMOND.

In that part of the field General Butler had moved up with a strong division from Fortress Monroe. On the 5th of May that officer captured Bermuda Hundred and City Point at the mouth of the Appomattox. He then advanced in the direction of Petersburg, but was met on the 16th by the corps of General Beauregard and was driven back to Bermuda Hundred. There he entrenched himself and stood on the defensive. On the 15th of June General Grant effected a junction with Butler and again advanced against Petersburg. On the 17th and 18th the Confederate entrenchments about that city were several times assaulted, but could not be taken. Lee's army was hurried into the defences and by the end of June Petersburg was invested.

Meanwhile, before moving from the Rapidan, General Grant had despatched Sigel into the Shenandoah Valley with a division of eight thousand men. On the 15th of May that officer was met at New Market, fifty miles above Winchester, by the Confederate cavalry division of General Breckinridge. The Federals were routed and the command of the flying divisions was transferred to General Hunter. Breckinridge returned to Richmond, whereupon Hunter again advancing up the valley struck the Confederates at Piedmont and gained a signal



FROM RICHMOND TO APPOMATTOX, 1865.

victory. From this point he advanced with the cavalry of General Averill against Lynchburg, but in this adventure he got into such peril that he was obliged to retreat across the mountains into West Virginia.

General Lee was now able to send Early's

command into the Shenandoah Valley with orders to press down to the Potomac, invade Maryland and threaten Washington City. The object of the campaign was to oblige Grant to loose his hold on Petersburg for the defence of the National capital. The situation indeed was sufficiently alarming. Early, with twenty thousand men, gained the Potomac and on the 5th of July crossed into Maryland. On the 9th he was confronted by the division of General Lew Wallace, on the Monocacy; but the latter was able with the force at his command to do no more than hold the Confederates in check until Washington and Baltimore could be put into a more defensible condition. Early came *within gunshot* of both of these cities; but on the 12th of the month fell back and recrossed the Potomac.

The Union command on the Shenandoah was now transferred from Hunter to Wright. The latter pursued Early as far as Winchester, where on the 24th of July he fought with him a successful engagement. But Early turned upon his antagonist and the Union troops were driven back across the Potomac. Following up his advantage, the Confederate leader pressed on into Pennsylvania, burned Chambersburg and returned into Virginia with vast quantities of plunder.

General Grant was greatly vexed with these successful raids of the Confederates. In the beginning of August he consolidated the Union divisions in the Shenandoah Valley and on the upper Potomac into a single army, and gave the command to General Philip H.

Sheridan. It was the destiny of this young and brilliant officer to rise above the chaos in the concluding scenes of the war and to contribute much by his daring and genius to the final success of the Union cause.

BATTLE OF WINCHESTER.

On the 19th of September Sheridan with an army of about forty thousand men came upon Early at Winchester. A hard battle ensued in which the Confederates were decisively defeated. The Union General followed his antagonist, and on the 22d of the month again routed him at Fisher's Hill. Then came one of the saddest episodes of the war in which the fruitful Shenandoah Valley was, as a military measure, laid waste and ravaged. Grant ordered Sheridan to spare nothing from destruction that might any longer furnish the means of subsistence to the enemy. The ruinous work was fearfully well done and little was left worth fighting for between the Blue Ridge and the Alleghanies.

Early, maddened by this destruction and stung by his defeats, rallied his forces, gathered reinforcements and returned into the desolated valley. Sheridan at this juncture, having posted his army on Cedar Creek and feeling secure in the situation, went to Washington. Early seized the opportunity and on the 19th of October surprised the Union camp, captured most of the artillery and sent the army in rout and confusion toward Winchester. The pursuit was continued as far as Middletown. The Confederates believing themselves completely triumphant paused to eat and rest. On the previous night, however, Sheridan returning from Washington reached Winchester, and at the time of the rout of his army was on his way to the front. While riding forward he heard the sound of battle, spurred on for twelve miles at full speed, met the panic-struck fugitives, rallied them at his call, turned upon the Confederates and gained one of the most signal victories of the war. Early's army was disorganized and ruined. It was the end of strife in the valley of the Shenandoah.

Grant having thus cleared the horizon of Virginia and confident of the success of Sheridan's expedition to the sea, now sat grimly down to the investment of Petersburg. All fall and winter long he pressed the siege with varying success. As early as the 30th of July, 1864, an attempt was made to carry the Confederate defences by assault. A mine



GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

was exploded under one of the forts, and a column sprang forward at full charge to gain the lines of Petersburg; but the attack failed, and that with serious losses. On the 18th of August a division of the Union army succeeded in seizing the Weldon Railroad. The Confederates made several courageous assaults to regain their lost ground, but were beaten back with losses of thousands on both sides. On the 26th of September, the Federals carried Battery Harrison, on the right bank of the James, and on the next day Paine's brigade of

colored soldiers carried a strong Confederate position on Spring Hill. On the 27th of October a bloody battle was fought on the Boydton road, south of Petersburg.

CAPTURE OF PETERSBURG.

Both armies now rested for the winter. Not until the 27th of February, 1865, was the struggle renewed. On that day General Sheridan attacked the forces of Early at Waynesborough, defeated them, and then joined the commander-in-chief at Petersburg. During March, General Grant pressed the siege of that important position, gathered strong reinforcements, and waited impatiently for the opening of spring. On the 1st of April the campaign began with a severe battle at Five Forks, on the Southside Railroad—

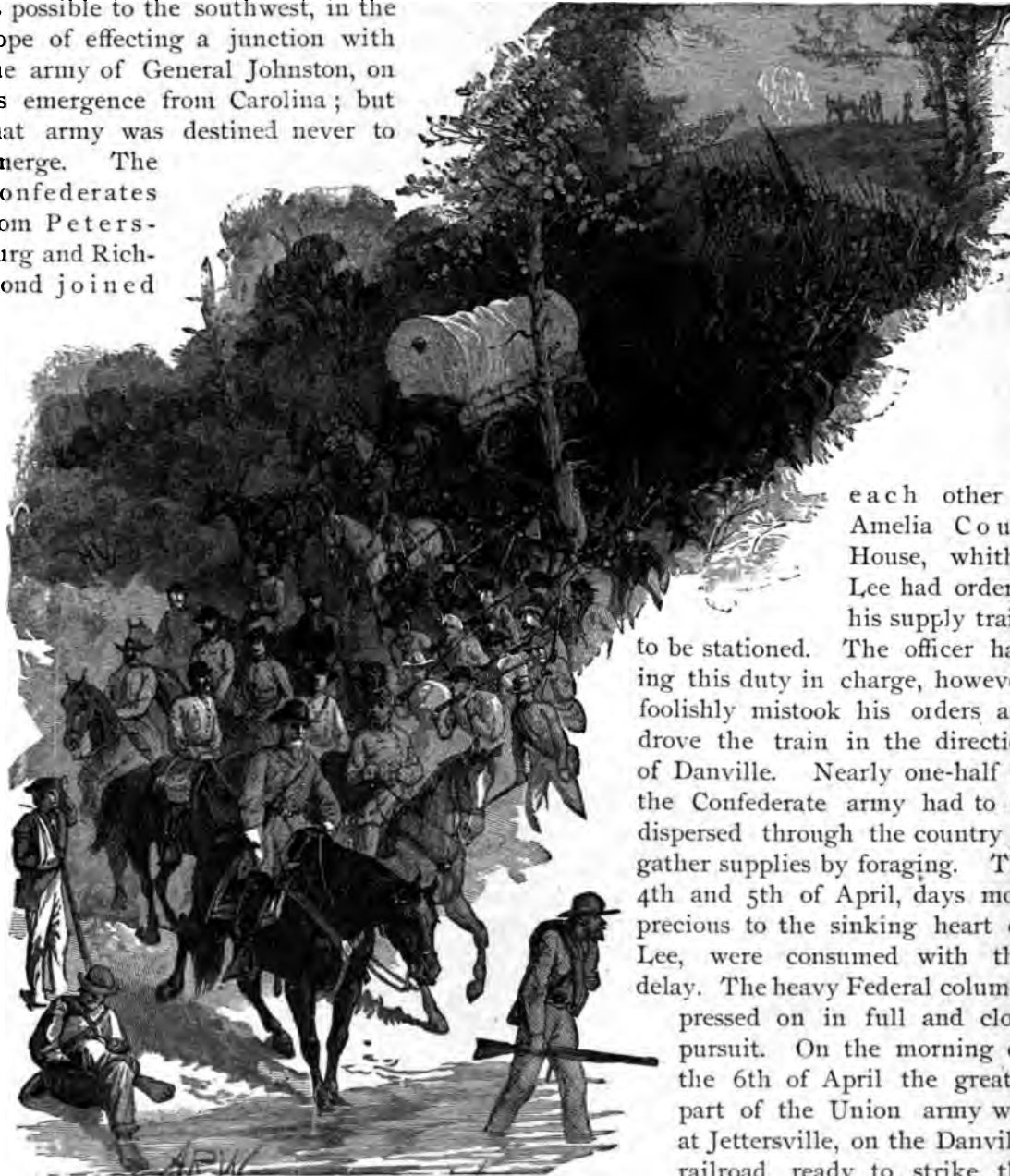


SHERIDAN'S RIDE.

an engagement in which the Confederates were defeated with a loss of six thousand prisoners. On the next day Grant ordered an assault along the whole line in front of Petersburg, and the Confederate works were carried. The rim of iron and valor which Lee had so long maintained around the Confederate capital was shattered by the tremendous blow. On that night he with his army and the members of the Confederate government fled from Richmond, and on the next morning that city, together with Petersburg, was entered by the Federal army. The warehouses of the ill-fated

capital were fired by the retreating Confederates, and the better parts of the Southern metropolis was reduced to ruins.

The final catastrophe of the Confederate cause was now not far away. All men perceived that the struggle could last but a few days longer. General Lee retreated as rapidly as possible to the southwest, in the hope of effecting a junction with the army of General Johnston, on its emergence from Carolina; but that army was destined never to emerge. The Confederates from Petersburg and Richmond joined



LEE'S ARMY ON THE RETREAT.

each other at Amelia Court House, whither Lee had ordered his supply trains to be stationed. The officer having this duty in charge, however, foolishly mistook his orders and drove the train in the direction of Danville. Nearly one-half of the Confederate army had to be dispersed through the country to gather supplies by foraging. The 4th and 5th of April, days most precious to the sinking heart of Lee, were consumed with this delay. The heavy Federal columns pressed on in full and close pursuit. On the morning of the 6th of April the greater part of the Union army was at Jettersville, on the Danville railroad, ready to strike the Confederates at Amelia.

Sheridan was on the extreme left flank, and pressing forward in the direction of Deatonville. Ord came up with his division by way of the Southside railroad to Burke's Station. Lee fell back to the west from Amelia Court House, and reached

Deatonville. Here, however, he found the vigilant Sheridan planted squarely in his course. The division of Ewell, six thousand strong, was flung against the Federal position, but was broken to pieces and captured in the charge.

General Lee still hoped to make a detour to the west and south around the Federal left. By strenuous exertions he succeeded in gaining the Appomattox, at Farnville, crossed to the other side, and burned the bridges. He thus sought to interpose a considerable stream between himself and his pursuers; but the effort was in vain. Lee next made a desperate effort to hold the Lynchburgh railroad; but Sheridan was there before him. On the 7th of April the Confederates had their last slight success. But all hope of victory, or even escape, was soon blown out in despair. On that day Grant, from Farnville, addressed a note to the Confederate commander, expressing a desire that further sacrifice of life and waste of war might be avoided by a surrender. To this Lee replied declaring his desire for peace, but adding that the occasion for the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia had not arrived.

THE SURRENDER OF LEE.

On the 8th of April the process of surrounding the Confederate army went vigorously forward. On the morning of the 9th, when it became known that the left wing of the Union army had secured the line of the Lynchburg railroad—when the wrecks of Longstreet's veterans covering the retreat were confronted and driven back by Sheridan, the soul of the Confederate leader failed him. Seeing the utter uselessness of a further struggle, he sent to General Grant a note asking for a meeting preliminary to a surrender.

The Union commander immediately complied with the request. At two o'clock on the afternoon of that day, Palm Sunday, April 9th, 1865, the two generals—two of the greatest of modern times—met each other in the parlor of William McLean, at Appomattox Court House. There the terms of surrender were agreed upon. General Grant put his proposition in the form of a military note, to which General Lee returned a formal answer. The note of the Union commander was as follows:

APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE, VA., April 9, 1865.

GENERAL,—In accordance with the substance of my letter to you of the 8th instant, I propose to receive the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia on the following terms, to wit: Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate; one copy to be given to an officer to be designated by me, the other to be retained by such other officer or officers as you may designate. The officers to give their individual paroles not to take up arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged, and each company or regimental commander to sign a like parole for the men of their commands. The arms, artillery and public property to be parked and stacked, turned over to the officers appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers nor their private horses or baggage. This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to his home, not to be disturbed by United States authority so long as they observe their paroles and the laws in force where they reside.

U. S. GRANT, *Lieutenant-General*.

To this memorandum General Lee responded as follows:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VIRGINIA, April 9, 1865.

GENERAL,—I received your letter of this date, containing the terms of the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, as proposed by you. As they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th instant, they are accepted. I will proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect.

R. E. LEE, *General*.

After the capitulation of Lee's army a general collapse rapidly followed throughout the States in rebellion. The destruction of the military power signified the overthrow of the government and the ultimate obliteration of all that had been done against the national



GENERAL LEE SIGNING THE CONDITIONS OF SURRENDER.

authority. The surrender of Johnston to Sherman followed on the 26th of April. In the overthrow of their two great armies all reasonable Confederates foresaw the end. After four dreadful years of bloodshed, devastation and sorrow, the civil war had ended with the complete triumph of the Union cause.

CAPTURE OF DAVIS.

• It now remained to reestablish the Federal authority



THE LAST MEETING OF THE CONFEDERATE CABINET.

days kept up a form of government. They then fled into North Carolina and were scattered. The ex-President, with a few friends, made his way into Georgia, where he

over the Southern States. On the part of the Confederates there was no serious effort to prolong resistance. Lee bade adieu to his army and retired with shattered fortunes to private life. Jefferson Davis and his cabinet made their escape from Richmond to Danville, and there for a few

was captured near the village of Irwinville, on the 10th of May, by a part of the command of General Wilson. Davis was at once taken as a captive to Fortress Monroe, and was kept in confinement for two years. He was then removed to Richmond, to be tried on a charge of treason, but the cause remained untried for about a year and a half, and was then dismissed from court. It thus happened that the legal status of that error, fault or crime which the Confederate leaders had committed was never established in American jurisprudence, but left rather to dangle contentiously in the political sky of after times.

In the autumn preceding the downfall of the Confederacy Lincoln had been rechosen President for a second term. As Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, was elected in place of Hannibal Hamlin. The opposing Democratic candidates were General George B. McClellan and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio. The partisan fires were rekindled on every hilltop, and the North became a scene of turmoil. The Democratic leaders were rampant in their denunciation of the methods upon which the war was conducted and the war itself. In the National convention of that party at Chicago a resolution was adopted declaring the war a failure and demanding a cessation of hostilities until a peaceable solution of the trouble might be reached.

The effort to defeat Lincoln, however, could end only in confusion and failure. His majority was very heavy. Only the States of Kentucky, Delaware and New Jersey gave their electoral votes to McClellan. Meanwhile the people of Nevada had in accordance with an act of Congress prepared a State constitution, and on the 31st of October, 1864, that territory was admitted as the thirty-sixth member of the Union.

Great were the financial embarrassments of the government during the progress of the Civil War. The organization of the army and navy entailed enormous expenses which had to be met at a time when the credit of the United States had sunk to the lowest ebb. The price of silver and gold rose so rapidly that the redemption of bank-notes in coin soon became impossible. On the 30th of December, 1861, the banks of New York suspended specie payment, and this action was soon followed by all the banks of the country. The premium on gold and silver rose to such a figure that the transaction of public and private business on a basis of coin was no longer possible.

FINANCIAL MEASURES TO MEET THE EXPENSES OF THE WAR.

At this time Salmon P. Chase was Secretary of the Treasury. To his genius in large measure were due the various expedients which were adopted to uphold the National credit, and which were destined in the future to enter into not only the industrial conditions, but also the political issues of the United States. Old things passed rapidly away. As a temporary expedient the Secretary of the Treasury first sought relief by issuing TREASURY NOTES receivable as money and bearing interest at the rate of seven and three-tenths per cent. The expedient was successful, but the expenses of the government rose higher and higher, until by the beginning of 1862 more than a million of dollars daily was required to meet the outlay.

Congress, on the recommendation of Secretary Chase, now made haste to provide an INTERNAL REVENUE. This was made up from two general sources: first, *a tax* on manufactures, incomes and salaries; and second, *a stamp-duty* on all legal documents. The next step in the financial evolution was the issuing by the Treasury of a hundred and fifty millions of dollars in non-interest-bearing LEGAL TENDER NOTES of the United States to be used as money. Such was the beginning of that famous currency which under the name of *Greenbacks* sustained the nation during the war, survived the shocks of the epoch and

continued for a long time after the subsidence of the conflict to constitute one-half of the paper money used by the people of the United States.

But the greenback currency, issued again and again as the emergencies multiplied, was not of itself sufficient. A third great measure recommended by the Secretary provided for the issuance and sale of UNITED STATES BONDS. The first series of these, redeemable at any time after five years and under twenty years from date, was called the FIVE-TWENTY BONDS. The interest upon them was fixed at six per cent., payable semi-annually in gold. The event showed that the clause making the interest payable in gold rather than in the greenback currency tended to aggravate the disparity in the value of coin and paper money. The second series, called the TEN-FORTIES, was next issued, being redeemable at any time after ten and under forty years from date. The interest on this series was fixed at five per cent. and both principal and interest were made payable *in coin*. Then came at a later period the issue of the FOUR PERCENTS, and finally of the THREE AND A HALF PERCENTS and THREE PERCENTS, into which the higher priced bonds were for the most part converted.

THE NATIONAL BANK ACT.

The old banks of the United States soon disappeared. It seemed necessary that the place of local banking institutions should be taken by something else of like character. An act was accordingly passed for the establishment of NATIONAL BANKS. The constitution of these was peculiar in the last degree. The new banks were born out of the exigency of the times and their anomalous character must be explained from the existing conditions. The National Bank Act of May, 1862, provided that the new banks might use National bonds as the basis of their currency instead of gold and silver. Each bank must purchase and deposit with the Treasurer of the United States the requisite amount of bonds and receive thereon ninety per cent. of the valuation of the bonds deposited in a NATIONAL CURRENCY, such currency to bear the name of the particular bank from which issued, but otherwise to be of a common type for the whole country.

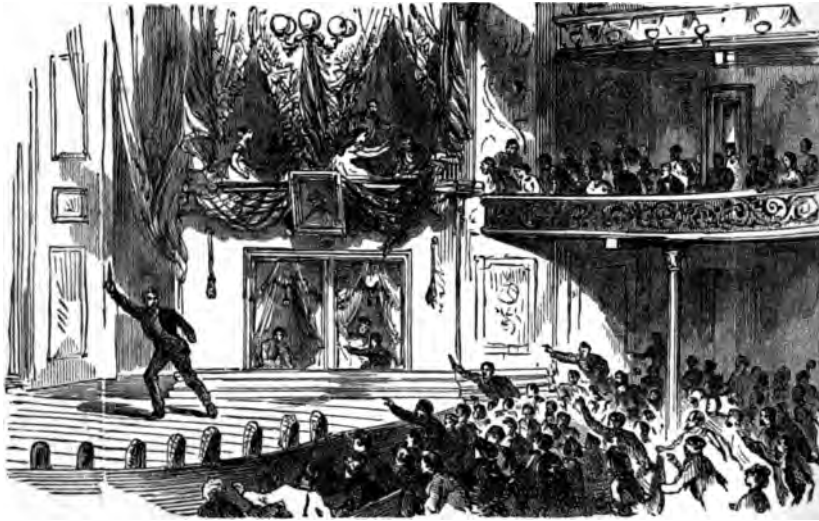
The new banks were rapidly organized in all the States under National authority. In a short time a mixed currency, composed about half and half of Greenbacks and National Bank bills, took the place of the old local paper money which had formerly constituted the bulk of the currency. Gold and silver soon disappeared from sight. All financial transactions swam henceforth for about seventeen years in an ocean of self-sustaining paper money. The precious metals became mere merchandise; but their fictitious connection with the National currency constituted a dangerous element of monetary speculation which the financial jobbers of the country were not slow to discover and use with fatal effect. The currency of the National banks was furnished and the redemption of the same guaranteed by the Treasury of the United States. By the various measures above described the means for prosecuting the Civil War were provided. At the end of the conflict the National debt proper had reached the astounding sum of nearly three thousand millions of dollars, and to this prodigious—almost incalculable—aggregate the exigencies of the war were adding more than two millions daily! Had the war continued another year National bankruptcy must have ensued.

On the 4th of March, 1865, Lincoln was inaugurated for his second term. The brief address which he delivered on the occasion was one of the most remarkable ever produced by a great man in a trying ordeal. He sought by sympathetic utterances to call back to royalty the infatuated people of the Southern States, exhorting his countrymen, "with malice towards none, with charity for all," to go about the work of healing the Nation's wounds and restoring political and social fellowship throughout the Union.

ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

At the time of his second inauguration the great Rebellion was in the throes of dissolution. Within a month the military power of the Confederacy was broken. Three days after the evacuation of Richmond by Lee's army the President visited that city, conferred with the authorities and then returned to Washington; but in the strange vicissitude of things the tragedy of his own sad life had already entered its last act. On the evening of the 14th of April he attended Ford's Theatre with Mrs. Lincoln and a party of friends. As the play drew near its close a disreputable actor, named John Wilkes Booth, stole unnoticed into the President's box, levelled a pistol at his head from behind and shot him through the brain. Lincoln fell forward in his seat, was borne unconscious from the building, lingered until the following morning and died. It was the greatest personal tragedy of modern times—the most atrocious and diabolical murder of history. The assassin leaped out of the box upon the stage, escaped into the darkness, mounted a waiting horse and fled across the Long Bridge of the Potomac into Virginia.

It was immediately perceived that a murderous conspiracy was on foot to destroy the Government by assassination. In the same hour of the shooting of Lincoln another murderer named Louis Payne Powell burst into the bed-chamber of Secretary Seward, who had recently been disabled by an accident, sprang upon the couch of the sick man, stabbed him nigh unto death and made his escape into the night. The city was thrown into the wildest alarm and excitement. The telegraph flashed the news throughout the land and a tremor of rage ran through all hearts.



ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

Troops of cavalry and the police of Washington departed in all directions to hunt down the conspirators. On the 26th of April, Booth was found concealed in a barn south of Fredericksburg. He refused to surrender even when the barn was set on fire. The object was to drive him forth alive; but Sergeant Boston Corbett, gaining sight of the assassin through the wall of the building, shot him down and he was dragged forth to die. Powell was caught, convicted and hanged. The other conspirators—David E. Herrold and George A. Atzerott, together with Mrs. Mary E. Surratt, at whose house the plot was formed—were also condemned and executed. Michael O'Laughlin, Dr. Samuel A. Mudd and Samuel Arnold were condemned to imprisonment for life in the Dry Tortugas, and Edward Spangler for a term of six years.

UNIVERSAL GRIEF OVER THE DEATH OF LINCOLN.

Thus in darkness, but not in shame, ended the strange career of Abraham Lincoln. He was one of the most remarkable men of any age or country—a man in whom the qualities of genius and common sense were strangely mingled. He was prudent, far-sighted and

resolute; thoughtful, calm and just; patient, tender-hearted and great. The manner of his death consecrated his memory. Thrown by murder from the high seat of power, he fell into the arms of the American people, who laid him down as tenderly as children lay their father on the couch of death. The funeral pageant was prepared on a scale never before equalled in the New World. From city to city in one vast procession the people followed his remains to their last resting place in Springfield. From all nations went up the cry of sympathy and shame—sympathy for his death, and shame for the dark crime that caused it.

It would appear that Lincoln fell in an inauspicious hour. The great Rebellion of the Southern States was tottering into oblivion; but the restoration of the Union remained to be effected. Who but Lincoln in such a crisis was fitted for such work? His temper, after the surrender of Lee, showed clearly the trend of his thoughts and sympathies—his sincere desire for peace, his love for his countrymen of all sections.

The words of mercy were upon his lips,
 Forgiveness in his heart and on his pen,
 When the vile murderer brought swift eclipse
 To thoughts of peace on earth, good-will towards men.

The Old World and the New, from sea to sea,
 Uttered one voice of sympathy and shame!
 Sore heart, so stopped when it at last beat free;
 Sad life, cut short just as its triumph came!

A deed accursed! Strokes have been struck before
 By the assassin's hand, whereof men doubt
 If more of horror or disgrace they bore;
 But thy foul crime, like Cain's, stands darkly out.

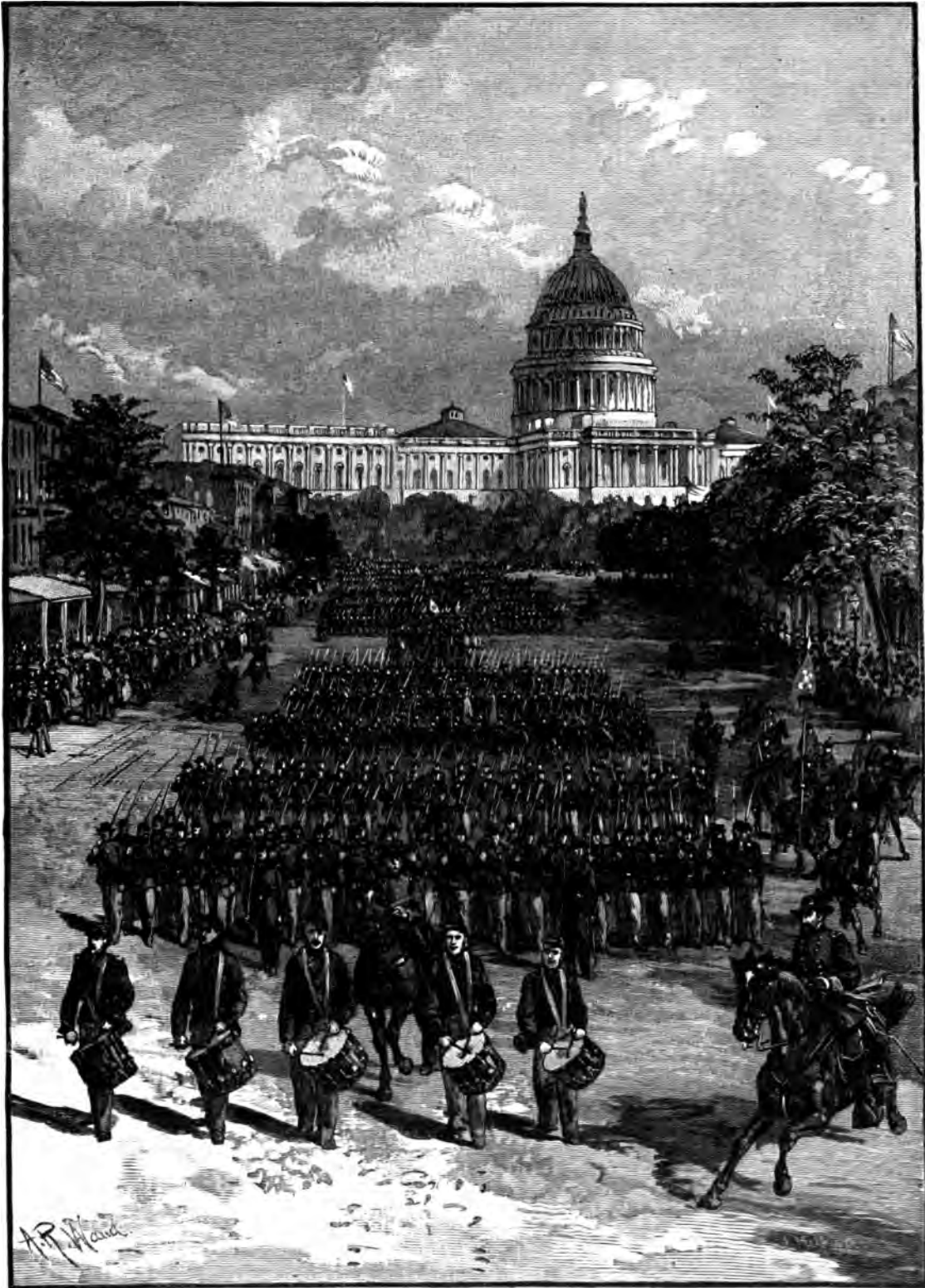
Vile hand! that branded murder on a strife,
 Whate'er its grounds, stoutly and nobly striven,
 And with the martyr's crown crownest a life
 With much to praise, little to be forgiven! *

The man of Europe might well be surprised at the slight disturbance in governmental affairs produced by the assassination of Lincoln. The public credit was undisturbed. It was demonstrated that in one country of the earth the Nation is the Government.

ACCESSION OF ANDREW JOHNSON.

The death of the President called Andrew Johnson to the chief magistracy. The latter on the day after the assassination took the oath, and at once assumed the duties of office. He was a native of North Carolina, born in Raleigh, on the 29th of December, 1808. His boyhood was passed in obscurity, poverty and neglect. He had no advantages of education, and at the age of ten was apprenticed to a tailor. At eighteen he removed with his mother to Tennessee, and made his home at Greenville, in that State. Here he took in marriage an intelligent lady, who taught him to write and cipher. Here by native talent, will and strength he first earned the applause of his fellow-men. Here through toils and hardships he rose to distinction, and was elected to Congress. As Senator of the United States, in 1860-61, he opposed secession with all his vehemence, even after the legislature of Tennessee had declared that State out of the Union. Then on the 4th of March, 1862, he was appointed military governor of Tennessee, and established himself at Nashville. He administered affairs from that place with all the vigor and passion of his

* From the London *Punch*, of May 6th, 1865.



THE CLOSING SCENE OF THE WAR—GRAND MILITARY PARADE IN WASHINGTON.

nature. There was neither quailing nor the spirit of compromise. His life was imperilled, but he fed on danger and grew strong. In 1864 he was elected to the Vice-Presidency in place of Hannibal Hamlin. Now, by the tragic death of the President, he was called suddenly to the assumption of responsibilities almost as great as those which Lincoln had borne during the war.

In his first message to Congress, Johnson recommended a policy of extreme severity toward the civil and military leaders of the Confederacy. The merciful tones of Lincoln were no longer heard from the White House, and there were dread and quaking throughout the seceded States. The great questions entailed by the war were at once taken up. On the 1st of February, 1865, a Constitutional Amendment was adopted by Congress, formally abolishing and forbidding human slavery in all the States and Territories of the Union. By the 18th of the following December the amendment had been ratified by the legislatures of twenty-seven States, and became a part of the Constitution. Thus was the Emancipation Proclamation of Lincoln made legal by the representatives of the people and the people themselves, and thus were the logical results of the war incorporated forever in the fundamental law of the land.

THE AMNESTY PROCLAMATION.

What should the Government do with the leaders of the late Rebellion? On this question the voice of Lincoln was heard out of the grave. Following the policy of that martyr, President Johnson, on the 29th of May, 1865, issued the Amnesty Proclamation, providing a general pardon for all persons—except those specified in certain classes—who had participated in the organization and defense of the Confederacy. The condition of pardon was simply an oath of allegiance to the United States. The excepted persons might be pardoned on special application to the President.

As soon as practicable the great armies were disbanded. General Grant hurried from the field and lent his aid and influence to the work. One of the most striking scenes ever witnessed was the great military parade and review at Washington City. It was the closing pageant of the war. Seventy-five thousand Union soldiers, including Sherman's veterans from Carolina, paraded the streets and passed the reviewing stand, where the President and the principal civil and military officers of the United States occupied the platform. After this the soldiers as an organized force melted rapidly away, and were resolved into the citizenship out of which they sprang.

By the end of the war the National debt had piled up mountains high. It went on increasing in proportions until the beginning of 1866. The yearly interest rose to the enormous sum of \$133,000,000 in gold. The expenses of the Government had reached an aggregate of two hundred millions annually. The augmented revenues of the Nation, however, and the energy of the financial management, proved sufficient to meet the enormous outlay, and at last the debt began to be slowly diminished. On the 5th of December, 1865, a resolution was adopted by the House of Representatives pledging the faith of the United States to the full payment of the National debt, both principal and interest.

EXECUTION OF MAXIMILIAN.

During the progress of the war the Government had been constantly menaced by the hostility of foreign Powers. Only Russia, of all the great governments of Europe, had been at heart favorable to the Union cause. Great Britain from first to last sympathized with the Confederacy and hoped for the dismemberment of the American Republic. Napoleon III., Emperor of the French, sought to aid the Confederate States and to precipitate the downfall of the Union. In pursuance of this plan, he set up a French empire in

Mexico. The condition of affairs in that country favored his schemes. There was a Mexican revolution and civil war. A French army was sent to Mexico. An Imperial government was organized, and early in 1864 the Crown was offered to Maximilian, Archduke of Austria. The latter accepted, and repairing to Mexico set up his government with the aid of French and Austrian soldiers.

The Mexican President Juarez, however, headed a counter-revolution against the foreign usurpation, and the Government of the United States sent a rebuke to France for her



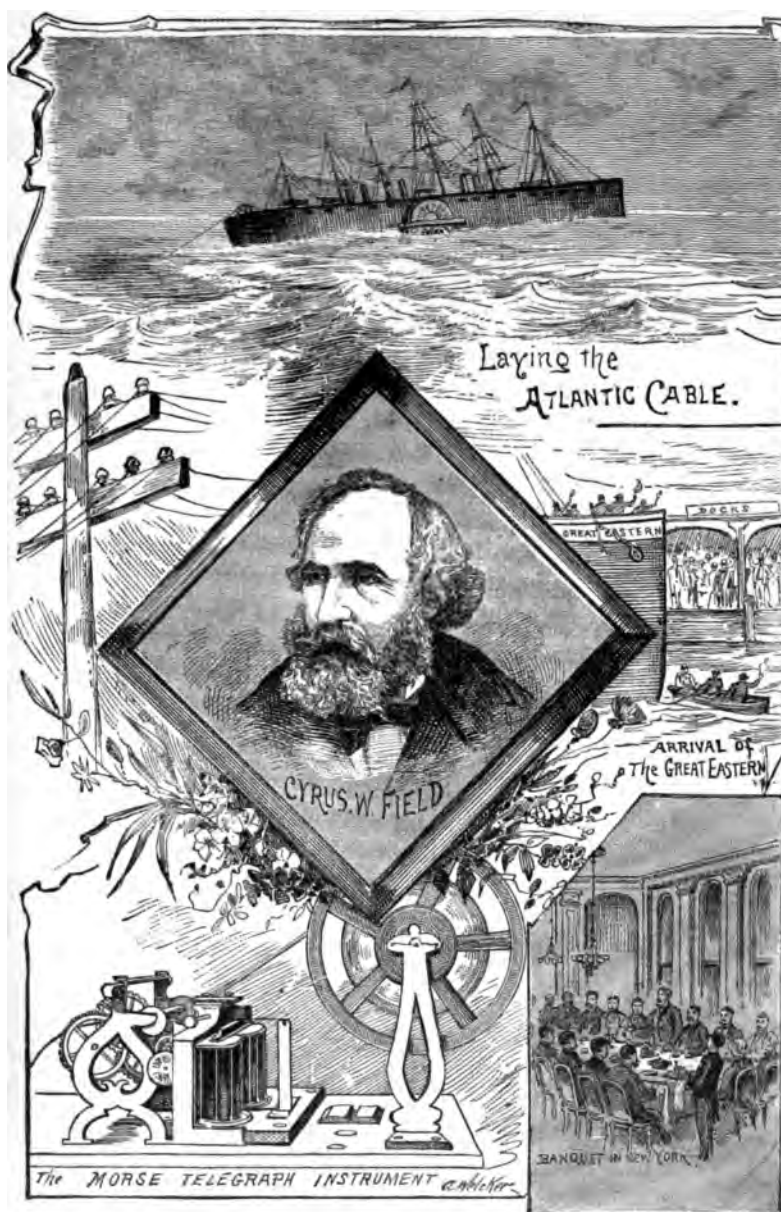
EXECUTION OF MAXIMILIAN.

violation of the Monroe Doctrine. Napoleon, becoming alarmed, withdrew his army. Maximilian was overthrown and driven from

the capital. He fled to Queretaro, where he was besieged and taken prisoner. On the 13th of June, 1867, he was tried by court-martial and condemned to be shot. On the 19th he was led to execution. He met his fate like a hero. His death and the insanity of the Empress Carlotta awakened the commiseration of mankind. The scheme of Napoleon collapsed and his hope of gaining a foothold in the New World and of "restoring the ascendancy of the Latin race" was brought to shame and contempt.

The summer of 1865 was noted for the laying of the second Atlantic cable. The first line, laid in 1858, had failed after a few weeks of operation. Cyrus W. Field never abandoned the enterprise, but held on persistently till fame and success came together. After

the steamer *Great Eastern* had proceeded twelve hundred miles on her way to America the second cable parted and was lost. The enterprise was renewed for the third time in July of 1866 and the work was successfully done. The lost cable was also recovered and that line completed. After twelve years of unremitting efforts Mr. Field received a gold medal from Congress and the plaudits of all civilized nations.



TRIUMPH OF FAITH AND GENIUS.

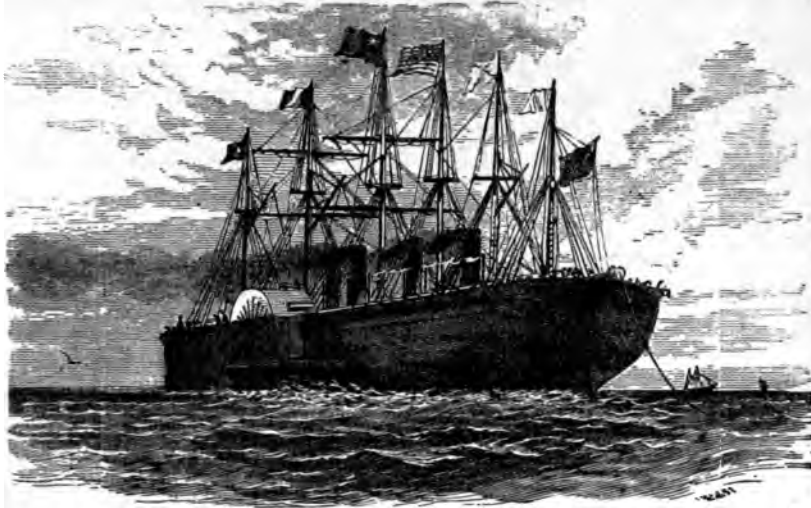
It was during the administration of Johnson that the Territories of the United States were given approximately their final forms. The vast domains west of the Mississippi were reduced to proper limits and organized for early admission into the Union. In March of 1861 Dakota, destined after twenty-seven years to become two great States, was detached from Nebraska on the north and given a political organization. The Territory embraced an area of a hundred and fifty thousand square miles. Kansas had at last, on the 29th of January, 1861, been admitted into the Union under a constitution framed at Wyandotte. In February of 1863 Arizona, with an area of a hundred and thirteen thousand square miles, was separated from New Mexico on the west, and organized as an independent Territory. On the 3d of March in the same year Idaho was constructed out of por-

tions of Dakota, Nebraska and Washington Territory. On the 26th of May, 1864, Montana, with an area of a hundred and thirty-six thousand square miles, was cut off from the eastern part of Idaho. On the 1st of March, 1867, the Territory of Nebraska, reduced to an area of seventy-six thousand square miles, was admitted into the Union as

the thirty-seventh State. On the 26th of July, 1868, Wyoming, with an area of ninety-eight thousand square miles, was organized out of portions of Dakota, Idaho and Utah.

PURCHASE OF ALASKA.

Meanwhile, in 1867, the far-off region of the northwestern extremity of our continent, known as Alaska, was purchased by the United States. Two years previously this country had been explored by a corps of scientific men, with a view of establishing telegraphic communication between the United States and Asia. Alaska was found to be by no means the worthless country of popular belief. The coast fisheries, including the product of the seal islands, were found to be of very great value and the pine and cedar forests were among the finest in the world. Negotiations for the purchase of the country were opened with Russia by William H. Seward, Secretary of State, and on the 30th of March, 1867, the treaty was concluded by which for seven million two hundred thousand dollars Alaska was purchased by the United States, thus adding to our territories an area of five hundred and eighty thousand square miles and a population of twenty-nine thousand souls.



THE GREAT EASTERN LAYING THE ATLANTIC CABLE.



CHAPTER XXVII.

EPOCH OF RECONSTRUCTION.



DUTY now devolved upon the Government to reconstruct the American Union. How to do it was the issue of the day. On that question a break soon appeared between the President and Congress. The former held that the ordinances of secession had been invalid and of no effect, and that the restoration of the Southern States to their place in the Union was a matter of executive authority and management. The President accordingly proceeded on the 9th of May, 1865, to issue a proclamation for the restoration of Virginia to her place in the Union. Twenty days afterwards he issued a second proclamation for the setting up of a provisional government in South Carolina, and at brief intervals for all the other States of the Confederacy. On the 24th of June he proclaimed the removal of all restrictions from commerce with the Southern States. On the 7th of September he completed the cycle of manifestoes by issuing a second Amnesty Proclamation, whereby all persons who had upheld the Confederate cause, except a few leaders, were unconditionally pardoned.

Meanwhile Tennessee was reorganized, and in 1866 restored to her place in the Union. All the while, however, Congress, falling more and more into hostility with the President, pursued its own line of policy with regard to reconstruction. During the session of 1865-66 a Committee of Fifteen was appointed to consider all questions relating to the reorganization of the Southern States. Soon afterwards the Civil Rights Bill was passed with a view to securing to the freedmen of the South full exercise of citizenship. This measure was vetoed by the President, but was immediately repassed by a two-thirds' Congressional majority. This was the beginning of the open break between the two departments of the Government.

The summer of 1866 witnessed a call for a National Peace Convention to be held in Philadelphia on the 14th of August. The project appears to have originated in a sentiment of the President. The objects of the meeting were not clearly defined, but the immediate purpose was to get together the representatives from all parts of the country for a fraternal political meeting. To this extent the scheme was successful. At the appointed time delegates from all the States and Territories came together. President Johnson attended the Convention, and the meeting was not wanting in spirit; but it proved to be a factitious enthusiasm, springing from the effort of those who clung to the administration.

Johnson in the next place sought to rally public opinion by a journey through the States. In the after part of summer he set out from Washington, taking with him General Grant, Admiral Farragut, the leading members of the Cabinet and a retinue of other celebrities. With these he departed for Chicago to be present at the laying of the corner-stone of

a monument to Senator Stephen A. Douglas. The party passed through Philadelphia, New York and Albany and after participating in the ceremonies at Chicago returned by way of St. Louis, Indianapolis, Louisville, Cincinnati and Pittsburg. At all the principal towns and cities through which he passed the President delivered addresses, which in some instances took the character of harangues in which he defended his own policy and denounced that of Congress. The result, however, was unfavorable to the chief actor, and in the following elections Congress was sustained by increased popular majorities. The stubborn nature of the President would not yield and the affairs of the administration came to a crisis. It began to appear that Johnson had gone over to the Confederate party. Congress abandoned him and with him the milder principles of reconciliation which Lincoln had professed, and became relentlessly hostile towards the lately rebellious party of the South.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

The Committee of Fifteen meanwhile brought forward their report and that report became the basis of the reconstruction of the Union. The terms were, first of all, that the people of any rebellious State should ratify by the legislature thereof the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which declared the citizenship of all persons born or naturalized in the United States. *After that* elections might be held and representatives to Congress chosen, with the full restoration of State autonomy. Meanwhile an act was passed forbidding the restriction of suffrage on the score of race or color in all the Territories of the United States. To all these measures the President opposed his veto; but in every case his objection was overcome by the two-thirds' majority in Congress.

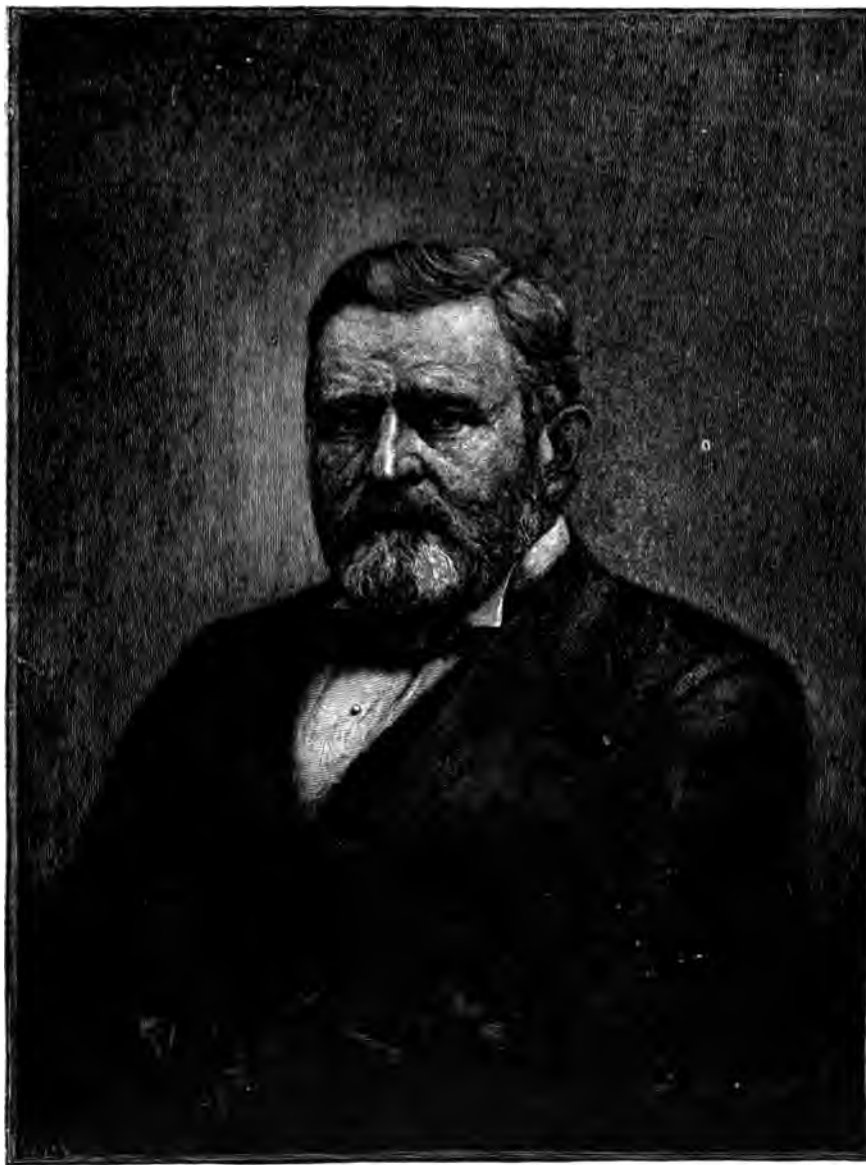
The question at issue now began to clear. It was simply this, whether a *civil* or a *military* plan of reconstruction should be adopted for the lately rebellious States. The latter view gained the day, and it was determined in Congress that the military and suppressive method should be employed in the South, securing a prospective alliance politically between the Black Republicans of the old slave States and the White Republicans of the North. The Presidential policy favored the resurrection of the old white leadership of the South—a measure which would probably have been fatal to the ascendancy of the Republican party in the government.

On the 2d of March, 1867, an act was passed by Congress for the organization of the ten seceded States into five military districts, each district to be under control of a governor appointed by the President. The latter appointed the governors, but appealed to his Attorney-General and secured from that official an answer that most of the reconstruction acts of Congress were null and void. The President hereupon issued such orders to the military governors as virtually made their offices of no effect. The counsels in the government became more and more distracted; but in course of time the States of Arkansas, Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina and South Carolina were reconstructed and in June and July of 1868 were readmitted into the Union. In each case, however, the readmission was effected over the veto of the President.

IMPEACHMENT TRIAL OF JOHNSON.

Matters in the administration now became critical. A difficulty arose in the Cabinet, which led to the impeachment of the President. On the 21st of February, 1868, he notified Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, of his dismissal from office. The act was regarded by Congress as not only unprecedented, but in violation of law, and was made the basis of the measures that were adopted against the Executive. On the 3d of March articles of impeachment were agreed to by the House of Representatives, and the cause against the

President was remanded to the Senate for trial. The proceedings began on the 23d of March and extended to the 26th of May, when the question was submitted to a vote of the Senators acting as judges, and Johnson was acquitted. His escape from an adverse verdict, however, was perilously narrow. A two-thirds' majority was required to convict, and but



U. S. Grant

The electoral votes of twenty-six States, amounting to two hundred and fourteen ballots, were cast in his favor, while his competitor received only the eighty votes of eleven States. Of the popular vote Grant received 3,013,188, against 2,703,600 for Seymour. The choice for the Vice-Presidency fell on Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana.

a single vote was wanting to that result. The trial was the most remarkable, and perhaps the most dangerous, which had ever distracted, not to say disgraced, the history of the country.

ELECTION OF GENERAL GRANT.

After this event Johnson went on sullenly to the close of his administration, but the time of another Presidential election was at hand, and General Ulysses S. Grant was named by the Republicans as their standard-bearer. On the Democratic side Horatio Seymour of New York was nominated. The questions dividing the people arose out of the issues of the Civil War. Should the measures of the recent Congress be upheld and carried into effect? On that question General Grant was elected by a large majority.

The new President was a native of Point Pleasant, Ohio, where he was born on the 27th of April, 1822. His boyhood was uneventful, but not without promise. At seventeen he entered the United States Military Academy at West Point, and was graduated in 1843. He served with distinction in the Mexican War, in which he was promoted to a captaincy for gallantry in the field. After that conflict he became a merchant in St. Louis, but afterwards resided at Galena, Illinois. At the outbreak of the Civil War he was living in obscurity, following the vocation of tanner and leather-merchant. Nor could any have foreseen the probability of his emergence to fame. His military career has been recited in the preceding pages. At the close of the war his reputation was very great, and during the difficulties between President Johnson and Congress the fame of Grant rose still higher in the estimation of his countrymen. At the Republican Convention in Chicago, on the 21st of May, 1868, he had no competitor; he was unanimously nominated on the first ballot.

Entering on his duties as President, the new Executive sent to the Senate the following nominations: For Secretary of State, Elihu B. Washburne, of Illinois; for Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander T. Stewart, of New York; for Secretary of the Interior, Jacob D. Cox, of Ohio; for Secretary of the Navy, Adolph E. Borie, of Pennsylvania; for Secretary of War, John M. Schofield, of Illinois; for Postmaster-General, John A. J. Cresswell, of Maryland; for Attorney-General, E. R. Hoar, of Massachusetts. The nominations were at once confirmed, but it was soon discovered that Mr. Stewart, being an importer of foreign goods, was ineligible to a position in the Cabinet. George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, was accordingly appointed to the vacant position. Mr. Washburne also gave up his place to become Minister of the United States to France; the vacancy was filled by the appointment of Hamilton Fish, of New York.



GENERAL GRANT'S HOME IN GALENA, 1860.

Now came the completion of the Pacific railway. The first division of that great trans-continental line extended from Omaha, Nebraska, to Ogden, Utah, a distance of a thousand and thirty-two miles. This span was known as the Union Pacific Railway. The western division, called the Central Pacific, stretched from Ogden to San Francisco, a distance of eight hundred and eighty-two miles. On the 10th of May, 1869, the great work was completed with appropriate ceremonies.

The Civil War entailed the necessity for certain amendments to the Constitution of the United States. The first of these, known as the Fourteenth Amendment, extended the rights of citizenship to all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and declared the validity of the public debt. Just before the expiration of Johnson's term in the Presidency, the Fifteenth Amendment was adopted, providing that the right of citizens of the United States to vote should not be denied or abridged on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude. This article received the sanction of three-fourths of the legislatures, and on the 30th of March, 1870, was proclaimed by the President as a part of the Constitution.

BLACK FRIDAY.

Great opportunities for frauds and speculations were furnished by the financial conditions now present in the country. The buying and selling of gold became a business.

The art of manipulating the gold market was acquired to perfection, and the Gold Room in New York City became the scene of such audacious transactions as had never been known before. In the fall of 1869 occurred the most extraordinary event of all. No other scheme of equal extent and audacity was ever concocted in the financial marts of the world. A conspiracy was laid under the leadership of Jay Gould and James Fisk, Jr., to produce what is known as a *corner* in the gold market, and the success of the scheme was so considerable as to bring the business interests of the metropolis to the verge of ruin. The conspirators managed to advance the price of gold from about one hundred and thirty to one hundred and sixty-five, at which time the managers of the corner had virtual control of the market, and openly boasted that they would put up the price of gold to two hundred ! On the 24th of September, known as Black Friday, the crisis was broken by the action of the government. Mr. Boutwell unsealed the Treasury of the United States, poured the gold reserve on the heads of the gamblers, and forced down the price of their phantom gold twenty per cent. in less than as many minutes ! The speculators were blown away in an uproar, but managed by fraud and corruption to carry off with them more than eleven million dollars as the profits of their game !

At this time was completed the reconstruction of the Southern States. On the 24th of January, 1870, the Senators and Representatives of Virginia were readmitted to Congress. On the 23d of February, like action was taken in the case of Mississippi; and on the 30th of March the work was completed by the readmission of Texas, last of the seceded States. After a period of nearly ten years, the people of all the States were again represented in the councils of the nation.

The vast work of taking and publishing the ninth census of the United States was completed in the years 1870-71. The results were of the most encouraging character. Notwithstanding the ravages of war, the last decade had been one of wonderful growth and progress. The population had increased from 31,433,000 to 38,587,000. The centre of population had moved westward to a point fifty miles east of Cincinnati. The National debt had been somewhat reduced as to the figures in which it was expressed, but perhaps not at all in its value; for the currency had raised in value more rapidly than the debt had fallen off. The products of the United States had reached an enormous aggregate; even the cotton crop of the Southern States had regained much of its importance in the markets of the world. The Union now embraced thirty-seven States and eleven Territories, and the latter were, as we have seen, rapidly approaching Statehood.

President Grant was perhaps the least visionary of all the great Americans who have risen to distinction in our political history. In one particular he had a favorite project, and that was the annexation of Santo Domingo to the United States. He also sought to extend and amplify the relations, civil, social and commercial, between the American Republic and Mexico. His project for annexing Santo Domingo resulted in the appointment of a Board of Commissioners, composed of Senator Ben Wade, of Ohio, President Andrew D. White, of Cornell University, and Dr. Samuel Howe, of Massachusetts,—to visit Santo Domingo and report upon the desirability of annexation. The commissioners spent three months abroad, and reported in favor of the President's scheme. The matter was laid before Congress, but the opposition excited in that body was so great that the measure was defeated.

SETTLEMENT OF THE ALABAMA CLAIMS.

The time had now arrived when Great Britain was to be brought to the bar of justice for the wrongs which she had committed against the United States during the Civil War.

The account held against that country by our Government was sufficiently serious. The gravamen of the charges was the connivance of England in fitting out, equipping and encouraging the Confederate cruisers which preyed upon our commerce during the greater part of the war. The conduct of Great Britain was in plain violation of the law of nations. Time and again Mr. Seward remonstrated with the British authorities on account of their conduct. Great Britain, however, in common with all the monarchies of Western Europe, sympathized with the Confederacy, and desired the destruction of the American Republic—a type of government most dangerous to themselves.

After the war Great Britain became alarmed at her own conduct, and sought a settlement. In February of 1871 a Joint High Commission, composed of five British and five American statesmen, assembled at Washington City. The particular thing complained of by the United States was the so-called Alabama Claims, that is, claims arising from the ravages committed by the Confederate privateer, the *Alabama*. The commissioners succeeded in framing a treaty known as the Treaty of Washington, wherein it was agreed that all claims of either nation should be submitted to a Board of Arbitration, to be appointed by friendly nations. The high court thus provided for met in Geneva, Switzerland, in the summer of 1872. The cause of the two nations was impartially heard, and on the 14th of December was decided in favor of the United States. The verdict was that Great Britain for the wrong she had done should pay to the treasury of the American Government 15,500,000 dollars.

It was at this epoch that the railroad enterprises of the United States were carried to the high-water mark of activity and success. In 1871 no less than seven thousand six hundred and seventy miles of railroad were constructed. There is perhaps no other single fact in the history of the world which exhibits so marvellous a development of the physical resources of a nation. In 1830 there were but twenty-three miles of railway track in the New World; in 1840, two thousand eight hundred and eighteen miles; in 1850, nine thousand and twenty-one miles; in 1860, thirty thousand six hundred and thirty-five miles; in 1870, more than sixty thousand miles. In the single year of 1871 more miles of railway were built in the United States than Spain, whose navigators had discovered the New World, has built in her whole career!

THE BURNING OF CHICAGO.

The same year witnessed a calamity almost as vast as the enterprise just referred to was astonishing. The event in question was the burning of Chicago. On the evening of the 8th of October a fire broke out in De Koven Street and was driven by a high wind into the lumber yards and wooden houses of the neighborhood. The conflagration spread with great rapidity across the south branch of the Chicago river and thence into the business parts of the city. All that night and the next day the deluge of fire rolled on, sprang across the main channel of the river into North Chicago and swept everything away as far as Lincoln Park. The area burned over was two thousand one hundred acres, or three and a third square-miles! About two hundred lives were lost and property destroyed to the value of two hundred millions of dollars. No such devastation by fire had been witnessed since the burning of Moscow. The ravaged district was the greatest ever swept over by fire in a city; the amount of property was second in value, and the suffering occasioned third among the great conflagrations of the world.

In the fall of 1822 the dispute between the United States and Great Britain relative to our northwestern boundary was settled by arbitration. The treaty of 1846 had defined that line as extending to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from

Vancouver's Island and thence southerly through *the middle* of said channel and of Fuca's Straits to the Pacific. But what was "the middle of said channel"? There were several channels, and the British Government claimed the Straits of Rosario as the true line. The contention of the United States was for the channel called the Canal de Haro. After a quarter of a century the question was finally referred for arbitration to William I., Emperor of Germany. That monarch heard the cause and on the 21st of October, 1872, decided in favor of the United States, thus denoting the Canal de Haro as the international boundary.

President Grant was by education and habit a military man, a general of armies rather than a statesman. It was natural, from the conditions present at the epoch, that the military spirit should strongly express itself in the administration. Major-generals and brigadiers swarmed in the halls of Congress and thronged the White House. The President was not at all desirous of introducing military methods into the government; but on the other hand he had no sympathy with political methods and knew nothing of the arts of the demagogue. As a natural result he fell back upon the manners and usages with which he was acquainted. This, however, did not injure his popularity. He retained his hold upon the people, and with the approach of the presidential election it was evident that he would be renominated by his party.

TROUBLES ARISING FROM CARPET-BAG RULE.

The political questions of the day were still those which had issued from the Civil War. The Congressional plan of reconstruction had been unfavorably received in the South and was attacked by the Democratic party. The raising of the Negro race to the full rank of citizenship with the right of suffrage had created bitter opposition. In the South the civil government had been disorganized, and the attempt to establish military government in its stead virtually failed. The enmity of the Southern leaders and the greater part of the whites who had participated in the Rebellion was fanned to a flame by the presence of a governmental organization in which they did not, and would not, participate. A lawless secret society, called the Ku-Klux Klan spread through a greater part of the Southern States, its object being to harass and extinguish what were called the carpet-bag governments. These had been in large part instituted by political adventurers from the North who had gone South at the close of the war with their politics and other fortunes in their *carpet-bags*! It was now discovered what the Northern statesmen had failed to apprehend, namely, that the freedmen of the South had, for the time, little or no capacity for self-government.

Such were the questions which divided the people in the quadrennial election of 1872. General Grant was renominated by the Republicans. Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, was chosen as the Vice-Presidential candidate in place of Mr. Colfax. On the Democratic side there was much confusion of counsels. It was foreseen that a leader of that party on the issue presented to the American people would have small show of success against the great Union captains of the Civil War. Meanwhile a large number of prominent Republicans, dissatisfied with the administration, formed a Liberal Republican party, and nominated for the presidency Horace Greeley, editor of the New York *Tribune*. After some beating about, this nomination was accepted and ratified by the Democratic party, together with the platform of the Liberal Republicans, which was anything else than Democratic in its character. Greeley had for more than thirty years been an acknowledged leader of public opinion in America. He had been the champion of human rights, advocate of progress, idealist, philanthropist, a second Franklin born out of due season. He had discussed with vehement energy and enthusiasm almost every question in which

the people of the United States had any interest. Now at the age of sixty-one he was made the standard-bearer of a party of political extremes marvellously mixed.

This strange candidate of a strange party went before the people and spoke on the questions involved in the contest; but everything was adverse to his prospects. His own utterances, his strange personality, his former bitter contentions with the Democratic party, and many other things were paraded against him. He was overwhelmingly defeated. Grant's majority was almost unprecedented in the political history of the country. Mr. Greeley, who had for the time relinquished the editorial management of the *Tribune*, returned to his duties; but he went back a broken man, and died in less than a month after the election. With him ended the career of the greatest journalist which America had ever produced.

Just after the presidential election, the city of Boston was visited with a conflagration which but for the recent burning of Chicago would have been regarded as the greatest disaster of its kind ever known in the United States. On the evening of the 9th of November a fire broke out on the corner of Kingston and Summer streets, from which nucleus it spread in a north-easterly direction, and continued to rage with unabated fury until the morning of the 11th. The best portion of the city, embracing some of the most valuable blocks of buildings, was laid in ashes. The burnt district covered an area of sixty-five acres. Fifteen lives were lost, and property to the value of eighty millions of dollars.



HORACE GREELEY.

THE MODOC INDIAN WAR.

In the meantime a dreadful incident had occurred on the Pacific slope. In the spring of 1872, Superintendent Odneal undertook to remove the Modoc Indians from their lands on Lake Klamath, Oregon, to a new reservation. The Indians were already embittered against the Government on account of the mistreatment and robberies to which they had been subjected by the National officers. At length in November of 1872 a body of troops was sent to force the Modocs into compliance with the official order. They resisted, went on the warpath, and during the winter fixed themselves in an almost inaccessible region known as the Lava Beds. Here in the following spring they were surrounded. On the 11th of April, 1873, six members of the Peace Commission went to a conference with the Modocs, hoping to prevail upon them to yield to the demands of the Government, and to cease from hostilities. The Modocs dissembled, and in the midst of the conference sprang up and fired on the Commissioners. General Canby and Dr. Thomas fell dead on the spot. Mr. Meacham was shot and stabbed, but escaped with his life. The Modoc stronghold was then besieged and bombarded; but it was not until the 1st of June that General Davis, with a force of regulars, was able to compel the Indians to surrender. Jack himself and several of his chiefs were tried by court-martial, and executed in the following October.

The system of government instituted in the Southern States became more and more unsatisfactory. The best elements of Southern society were against it. The white Republicans, who for the most part had gone into the South after the war, were affiliated politically with the negroes. Against such a party the old Confederates had nothing but enmity and hatred. In 1873 a difficulty arose in Louisiana by which the State was thrown into turmoil. At the election of 1872, two sets of presidential electors had been chosen. There were two election boards. Two governors—William P. Kellogg and John McEnery—were elected and rival legislatures were set up. Two State governments were constituted and everything was dual.

The dispute was carried to the Federal government and the President decided in favor of Kellogg and his party. The rival government was dispatched, but in December of 1874 the McEnery party revived, and Lieutenant-Governor Penn, who had been with McEnery, gained possession of the State capitol. Kellogg fled to the custom-house and appealed to the President for aid. The latter ordered a body of troops to be sent to New Orleans and issued a proclamation against the adherents of Penn. With the assembling of the legislature, in December following, the difficulty broke out more violently than ever, and the insurgent party had to be put down by the military.

THE CREDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL.

Early in President Grant's second term occurred the Credit Mobilier investigation in Congress—a thing scandalous to national honor. The Credit Mobilier of America was a joint-stock company organized for the purpose of facilitating the construction of public works. Four years afterwards, namely, in 1867, a company which had been organized to build the Pacific Railroad purchased the charter of the Credit Mobilier and increased the capital to \$3,750,000. The Railway Company sublet the work of building the Pacific railway under contract for the government to the Credit Mobilier organization, and that body *was composed mostly of themselves!* The railway depended largely upon subsidies to be granted by the government. It became, therefore, of the vastest importance to the managers that favorable legislation should continue until they had gathered the proceeds.

It was necessary that the door which was thus opened into the treasury should not be closed. To prevent such possible obstruction the management resorted to wholesale corruption. In 1872 a law-suit in Pennsylvania developed the startling fact that much of the stock of the Credit Mobilier *was owned by members of Congress!* The managers, under the leadership of Oakes Ames, of Massachusetts, had placed the stock-certificates of the Credit Mobilier in wholesale quantities to the credit of Representatives, Senators and other high officers of the government. The certificates cost the holders not a cent. In some instances the holders were not aware that they were the owners of any such stock until large dividends were declared and tendered to them as profits! Not a few persons were thus enriched without the expenditure of a dollar. The suspicion flashed through the public mind that the holders of such stock had been corrupted, and that legislature favorable to the Pacific railway had been secured thereby. Many political fortunes were suddenly wrecked in the scandal, and public faith was greatly shaken in the representatives of the people.

In the fall of 1873 a disastrous financial panic overtook the country. The alarm was given by the unexpected failure of the great Banking House of Jay Cooke and Company, of Philadelphia. Other failures followed in rapid succession. Depositors hurried to the banks and withdrew their funds. A sudden paralysis fell on every department of business and many months elapsed before confidence was sufficiently restored to bring about the usual transactions of trade.

TRANS-CONTINENTAL RAILWAY LINES.

One of the results of this financial crisis was the sudden check given to the construction of the Northern Pacific Railway. This great work had been undertaken by subsidies from Congress. Jay Cooke's Banking House made heavy loans to the Company and accepted the bonds of the Company as security. When the Credit Mobilier scandal was blown abroad, Congress suddenly shrank back, even from such encouragement as it might have properly given to the Northern Pacific enterprise.

Work of construction on that line was suddenly arrested, not to be revived until after years of tedious delay. In 1875 the section of four hundred and fifty miles from Duluth to Bismarck, Dakota, was put into operation. The second span, one hundred and five miles in length, between Kalama and Tacoma, in Washington, was completed next, and finally the whole line. Meanwhile railway capitalists had turned to the south, and the Texas and Pacific Railway was projected, from Shreveport, Louisiana, and Texarkana, Arkansas, by way of El Paso, to San Diego, California, a distance from Shreveport of fifteen hundred and fourteen miles. This trans-continental line was completed before the close of the eighth decade, and furnished the second through line of travel and commerce between the old United States and the Pacific coast.

On the 4th of March, 1875, an Enabling Act was passed by Congress authorizing the people of Colorado to prepare a State constitution. On the 1st of July, 1876, the instrument thus provided for was ratified by the people. A month later the President issued his proclamation, and Colorado took her place as the Centennial State in the Union. The new commonwealth came with an area of a hundred and four thousand five hundred square miles, and a population of forty-two thousand. Public attention had first been drawn to Colorado by the discovery of gold in 1852. Silver mines were found soon afterwards, and in 1858-59 the first colony of miners was established on Clear Creek and in Gilpin County. Already before her admission as a State, Colorado had yielded from her treasures more than seventy millions of dollars in gold. Immigration became rapid; Denver grew into an important city; and the new State entered the Union under the most favorable auspices.

DEATH'S HARVEST AMONG THE GREAT.

By this epoch the great men whose character and genius had been developed in the times of the Civil War, began to drop rapidly from the ranks of the living. One of the most conspicuous of these personages was Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War under Lincoln, and more recently appointed Justice of the Supreme Court. He died on the 24th of December, 1869, only four days after his appointment to the Supreme Bench, nor has the manner or immediate occasion of his death ever been ascertained. On the 12th of



CHARLES SUMNER.

October, 1870, General Robert E. Lee, President of Washington and Lee University, passed away. In the same year General George H. Thomas and Admiral Farragut died. In 1872 William H. Seward, Professor Morse, Horace Greeley and General Meade were called from the scenes of their earthly labors. On the 7th of May, 1873, Chief Justice Chase fell under a stroke of paralysis, at the home of his daughter in New York city, and on the 11th of March, 1874, Senator Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, died at Washington. He was a native of Boston; born in 1811; liberally educated at Harvard College. He entered public life at the age of thirty-five and at thirty-nine succeeded Daniel Webster in the Senate of the United States—a position which he retained until the time of his death. On the 22d of November, 1875, Vice-president Henry Wilson died in Washington city. He, like Roger Sherman, had risen from the shoemaker's bench to the highest honors of his country. He possessed great abilities, true patriotism and many public and personal merits which will transmit his name to posterity.

The Centennial of American Independence was now at hand. As the event drew near the people made ready to celebrate it with appropriate ceremonies. It was determined to



JOSEPH R. HAWLEY.

hold in Philadelphia a great International Exposition of Arts and Industries, the exhibition to continue from the 10th of May to the 10th of November, 1876. An appropriation of a million five hundred thousand dollars was voted by Congress to promote the enterprise, and the sum was increased by contributions from every State and Territory of the Union. The city of Philadelphia opened for the Exposition Fairmount Park, one of the largest and most beautiful in the world. A commission was constituted with General Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, as President; Alfred T. Goshorn, of Ohio, as Director-general, and John L. Campbell, of Indiana, as Secretary.

THE CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.

Under direction of this commission five principal buildings were projected and brought to completion by the spring of 1876. The largest structure, called the Main Building, was eighteen hundred and seventy-six feet in length within the walls and four hundred and sixty-four feet wide, covering an area of more than twenty acres. The cost of the structure was \$1,580,000. Second in importance was the Memorial Hall, or art gallery, built of granite, iron and glass, and covering an area of seventeen thousand six hundred and fifty square feet. This was by far the most elegant and permanent of all the Centennial buildings. Machinery Hall, third of the great edifices, had the same form and appearance of the Main Building, but was less grand and beautiful. The ground floor covered an area of nearly thirteen acres. The cost of the structure was \$542,000. Agricultural Hall occupied a space of a little more than ten acres, and was built at a cost of \$260,000. Horticultural Hall was an edifice of the Moorish pattern, covering a space of one and three-fifths acres, costing about \$300,000. To these five principal structures others of interest were added: the United States Government Building; the Woman's Pavilion; the Department of Public Comfort; the Government

Buildings of Foreign Nations; Modern Dwellings and Bazaars; School Houses, Restaurants and Model Factories.

The reception of articles for the Exposition was begun as early as January, 1876. A system of awards was adopted, and on the 10th of May the inaugural ceremonies were held under direction of the Centennial Commission, President Grant making the opening address. The attention of the people was fully aroused to the importance of the event and the grounds were crowded from the first day with thousands and hundreds of thousands of visitors. The Exposition was perhaps the grandest and most interesting of its kind ever witnessed up to that year of history. All summer long citizens and strangers from every clime poured into the spacious and beautiful park. Distinguished personages, among them Dom Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil, came from abroad to gather instruction from the arts and industries of mankind.

The Fourth of July, centennial anniversary of the great Declaration, was celebrated throughout the country. In Philadelphia on that day about two hundred and fifty thousand strangers were present. The Declaration was read in Independence Square by Richard Henry Lee, grandson of him by whom the resolution to be free was first offered in Congress—read *from the original manuscript*. A *National Ode* was recited by the poet Bayard Taylor, and a *Centennial Oration* delivered by William M. Evarts. At night the city was illuminated and the ceremonies were concluded with fireworks and jubilee.

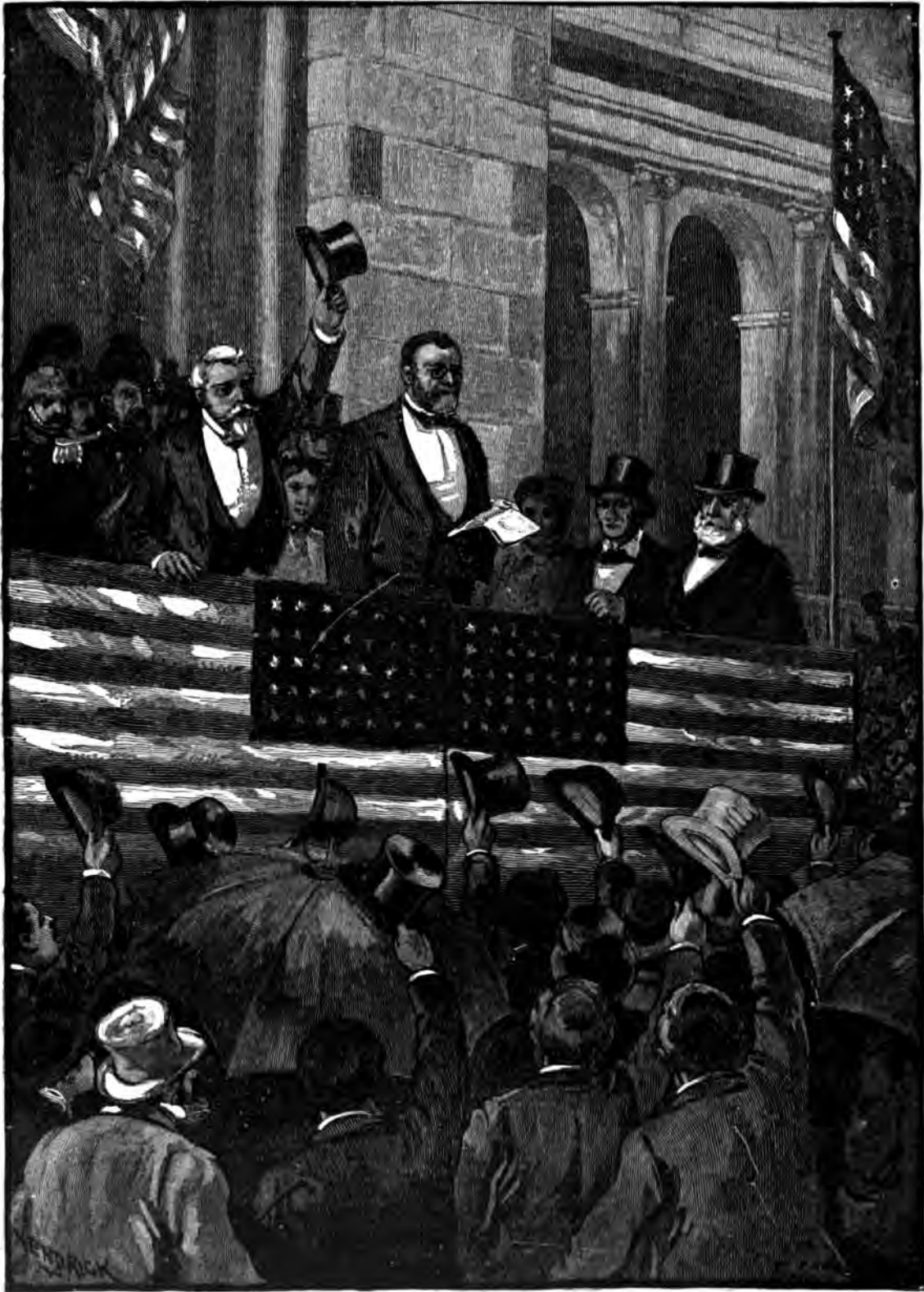
The Centennial grounds were opened for one hundred and fifty-eight days. The daily attendance varied from five thousand to two hundred and seventy-five thousand persons. The total receipts for admission were \$3,761,000. The total number of visitors was nine million seven hundred and eighty-six thousand. On the 10th of November the Exposition was formally closed by President Grant, attended by General Hawley and Director Goshorn, of Cincinnati. The Memorial building was preserved intact as a permanent ornament of Fairmount Park. The Main Building was sold by auction and the materials removed. Machinery Hall was purchased by Philadelphia and afterwards removed from the grounds. The Woman's Pavilion was presented to Philadelphia, together with most of the government buildings of foreign nations. It can not be doubted that the Centennial Exposition left a permanent impression for good and contributed to the harmony of the civilized States of the world.



ALFRED T. GOSHORN.

THE SIOUX WAR OF 1876.

In the last year of Grant's administration a war broke out with the Sioux Indians. This fierce nation had in 1867 agreed with the Government to relinquish all of the territory south of the Niobrara, west of the one hundred and fourth meridian and north of the forty-sixth parallel of latitude. The terms were such as to confine the Sioux to a large reservation in Southwestern Dakota. To this reservation they agreed to retire by the 1st of January, 1876. Meanwhile gold was discovered among the Black Hills, lying within the



PRESIDENT GRANT FORMALLY CLOSING THE CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.

limits of the Sioux reservation. No treaty could keep the hungry horde of white gold-diggers and adventurers from overrunning the interdicted region. This gave the Sioux good cause for breaking over the limits of their reservation and roaming at large, and also a certain excuse for the ravages which they committed in Wyoming and Montana.

The Government, however, must needs drive the Sioux back upon their reservation. A force of regulars under Generals Terry and Crook was sent into the mountainous country of the Upper Yellowstone and the Indians, numbering several thousand, led by their chief-tain, Sitting Bull, were crowded back against the Big Horn mountains and river. Generals Custer and Reno were sent forward with the Seventh Cavalry to discover the whereabouts of the Indians. They came upon the Sioux in a large valley extending along the left bank of the Little Big Horn. Custer led the advance. It was the 25th of June, 1876.

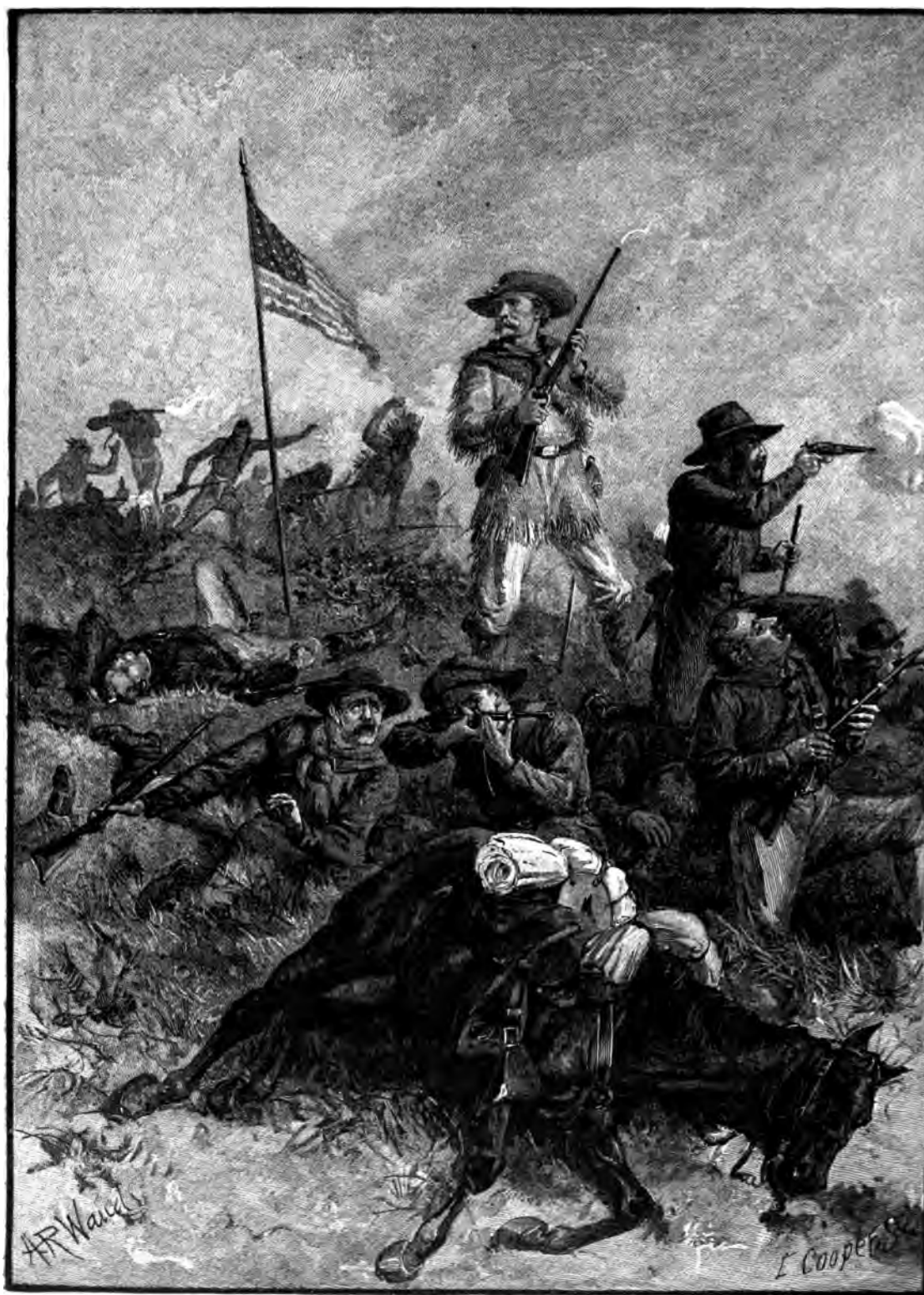
With Custer, to see the enemy was to fight. What ensued has never been adequately determined. It appears that the General, underestimating the number of the Indians with whom he had to contend, charged headlong with his division of the cavalry into the upper end of the town. He was at once assailed by thousands of yelling warriors. Custer and every man in his command fell in the fight. The conflict surpassed in desperation and disaster any other battle ever fought between the whites and Indians. The whole loss of the Seventh Cavalry was two hundred and sixty-one killed and fifty-two wounded. Reno, who engaged the savages at the lower end of their town, held his position on the bluffs of the Little Big Horn until General Gibbon arrived with reinforcements and saved the rest from destruction.

Other detachments of the army were hurried to the scene of war. During the summer and autumn the Indians were routed in several engagements. Negotiations were opened with the chiefs for the removal of the Sioux nation to the Indian Territory; but desperate bands of the Red men still remained on the warpath. The civilized Indians of the Territory objected to having the fierce savages out of the North sent into their country. The war went on till the 24th of November, when the Sioux were decisively defeated by the Fourth Cavalry in a pass of the Big Horn Mountains. The Indians suffered heavy losses and their town of a hundred and seventy-three huts was totally destroyed. Active operations continued until the 6th of January, 1877, when the remnant of the Sioux was completely routed by the division of General Miles.

The remaining bands of Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse now made their escape into Canada. There they remained until the following fall when a commission, headed by General Terry, met Sitting Bull and his principal warriors at Fort Walsh, on the Canadian frontier. A conference was held on the 8th of October and pardon was offered the Indians for all past offences, on condition of future good behavior. But Sitting Bull and his chiefs rejected the proposals. The conference was broken off and the Sioux remained in the British Dominions, north of Milk River. Not until 1880—and then through the intervention of the Canadian government—were Sitting Bull and his band induced to return to the reservation of the Yankton Sioux, on the west bank of the Missouri River, Dakota.

THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION OF 1876.

Before the end of the war the twenty-third Presidential election had been held. At the Republican National Convention of 1876 General Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, were chosen as the standard-bearers of their party. Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, were nominated by the Democrats. The Independent Greenback party appeared in the field and presented as candidates Peter Cooper, of New York, and Samuel F. Cary, of Ohio.



HEROIC DEATH OF CUSTER.

The canvass began early and was conducted with much asperity. The Democratic battle-cry was *Reform*—reform in the public service and in all the methods of administration. The Republicans answered back with the cry of *Reform*—averring their anxiety to correct public abuses of whatever sort, and to bring to punishment all who had been corrupt in the offices of the government. To this was added a declaration in favor of National sovereignty against the old doctrine of State sovereignty which was still vital in the South. The Greenback party also cried *Reform*—monetary reform first and all other reforms afterwards. It was alleged by the leaders of this party that the redemption of the National legal-tenders and other obligations of the United States *in gold* was a project unjust to the debtor class and iniquitous from every point of view. The advocates of this theory, however, had but a slight political organization and did not succeed in securing a single electoral vote.

The canvass drew to a close; the election was held; the general result was ascertained, and both the Republican and Democratic parties claimed the victory. The electoral votes of Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina and Oregon were claimed by both. In all those States there had been great irregularity and fraud at the election. The powers of Congress in such cases were so vaguely defined that no declaration of the result could be made. There was great confusion in the country and the premonition of civil war.

THE JOINT HIGH ELECTORAL COMMISSION.

With the meeting of Congress in December, 1876, the question of the disputed Presidency came at once before that body for settlement. The situation was complicated by the political complexion of the two Houses. In the Senate the Republicans had a majority, and in the House the Democrats. Acrimonious debates began and seemed likely to be interminable. Should the electoral votes of the several States be opened and counted by the presiding officer of the Senate in accordance with Constitutional usage in such cases? Or should some additional court be constituted to consider and pass upon the spurious returns from the States where frauds and irregularities had occurred?

The necessity of doing *something* became imperative. The business interests of the country grew clamorous for a speedy adjustment of the difficulty. The spirit of compromise gained ground in Congress and it was agreed that a Joint High Commission should be constituted to which all the disputed election returns should be referred for decision. The body was to consist of five members chosen from the Senate of the United States, five from the House of Representatives and five from the Supreme Court. The judgment of the tribunal was to be final in all matters referred thereto for decision.

The commission was accordingly constituted. The counting of the electoral votes was

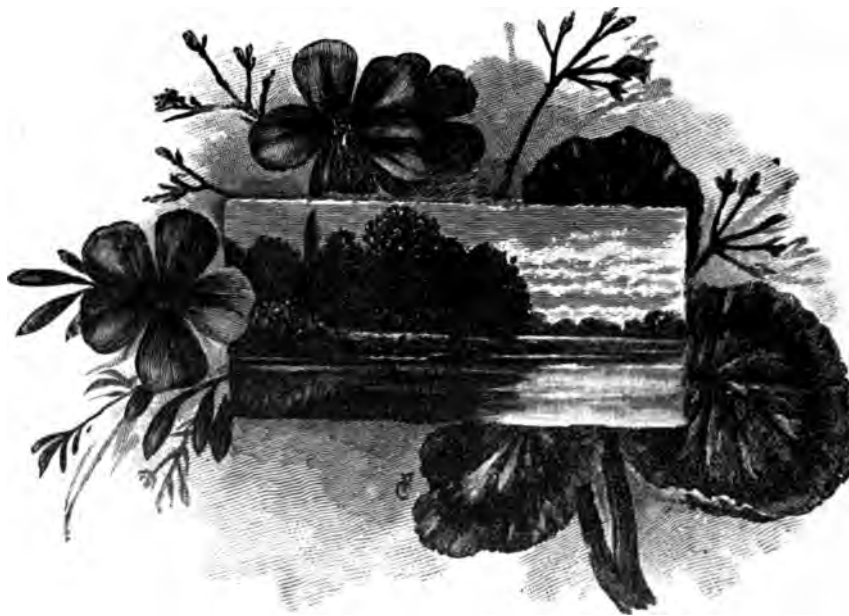


THOMAS A. HENDRICKS.

begun as usual in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives. When any disputed or duplicate returns were reached they were referred State by State to the Joint High Commission, by which body the decision was made. On the 2d of March, 1877, only two days before the time for the inauguration, the final judgment of the court was rendered. The Republican candidates were declared elected. One hundred and eighty-five electoral votes were counted for Hayes and Wheeler and one hundred and eighty-four for Tilden and Hendricks. The most dangerous political crisis in the history of the country thus passed harmlessly by without violence or bloodshed.*

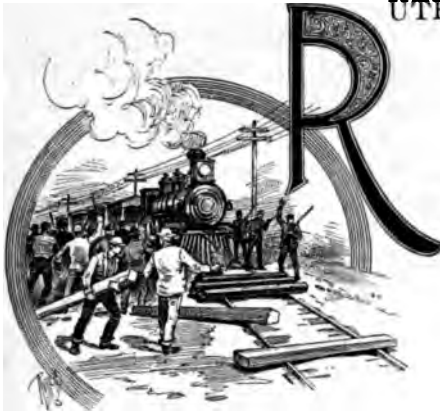
* The complete domination of party politics in the United States was never more unhappily illustrated than in the work of the Joint High Commission. This is not said in judgment of the result which was reached, but of the features and methods and principles revealed in the work of the Commission. The five members of the court from the House of Representatives—that body being Democratic—were of course three Democrats and two Republicans; the five from the Senate—that body being Republican—were three Republicans and two Democrats; the five from the Supreme Court were two Republicans, two Democrats and Judge David Davis, an Independent. It was clear from the first that the decision was likely to rest with the probity, conscience and fearlessness of Judge Davis. But before the issue came to trial, by a sudden whirl in the politics of Illinois, the legislature of that State elected Judge Davis to the Senate of the United States, thus relieving him of the fearful responsibility under which he was about to be placed. Judge Joseph P. Bradley, who was called an Independent, but whose political antecedents and proclivities were Republican, was accordingly appointed by the Supreme Court as the fifth member from that body.

When the proceedings began it was at once manifest that every Democratic member would vote for his candidates whatever might be the proofs; that every Republican would support Hayes and Wheeler whatever might be the facts, and that Judge Bradley, who constituted the real court, would decide according to his antecedents and proclivities. In no single instance during the proceedings did any member of the court rise above his political bias. The decision, therefore, happy enough in the sequel, was simply a gigantic political intrigue—a work in which on the whole the Republican leaders were more sagacious and skilful than their antagonists.



CHAPTER XXVIII.

PERIOD OF RECOVERY.



RUTHERFORD BURCHARD HAYES, nineteenth President of the United States, was born in Delaware, Ohio, on the 4th of October, 1822. His primary education was received in the public schools. After preparatory study at Norwalk Academy and Webb's Preparatory School, in Connecticut, he entered the Freshman class at Kenyon College, Ohio, and was graduated with high honors in 1842. In 1845 he completed his legal studies at Harvard College. He then began the practice of law, first at Marietta, then at Fremont, and finally in Cincinnati. Here he won a distinguished reputation. In the Civil War he rose to the rank of Major-General, and in 1864, being still in the field, was elected to Congress. In 1867 he was chosen governor of Ohio, and was twice reëlected. At the Republican convention of 1876 he had the good fortune to be nominated for the Presidency over several of the most eminent men of the nation.

President Hayes was inaugurated on the 5th of March, 1877.* He delivered for his inaugural a conciliatory and patriotic address. On the 8th of the month he sent to the Senate the names of his cabinet officers, as follows : Secretary of State, William M. Evarts, of New York ; Secretary of the Treasury, John Sherman, of Ohio ; Secretary of War, George W. McCrary, of Iowa ; Secretary of the Navy, Richard W. Thompson, of Indiana ; Secretary of the Interior, Carl Schurz, of Missouri ; Attorney-General, Charles E. Devens, of Massachusetts ; Postmaster-General, David M. Kee, of Tennessee. These nominations were duly ratified by the Senate, and the new administration was ushered in under not unfavorable auspices.

The first notable event under the new administration was the great Railroad Strike of 1877. Hitherto that action of workmen which has now passed into the phraseology of the times as *striking* had been little known, and that only in Eastern manufactories and in the mining districts of the country. At length, however, more complex conditions of industry had supervened in the United States, and capitalists and employes had come to entertain towards each other a sentiment and attitude of armed neutrality.

Early in 1877 the managers of the great railways leading from the seaboard to the West declared a reduction of ten per cent. in the wages of their workmen. The measure was to take effect on the first of July, at the precise time when the removal of the enormous grain products of the West would put upon the operatives of the railways the most excessive labors. It was the season of the year when receipts from railway freights were largest, and

* The fourth of March fell on Sunday. The same thing has happened in the following years : 1753, 1781, 1821 (Monroe's inauguration, second term), 1849 (Taylor's inauguration), 1877 (Hayes's inauguration) ; and the same will occur hereafter as follows : 1917, 1945, 1973, 2001, 2029, 2057, 2085, 2125, 2153.

when, therefore, there was least rational ground for a reduction of wages. The resistance of the workmen to the action of the managers was as natural as it was just.

THE GREAT RAILROAD STRIKE.

The strike began on the line of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad on the 16th of July. The workmen did not content themselves with ceasing to work, but gathered with such strength and spirit in Baltimore and Martinsburg, West Virginia, as to prevent the running of trains. The militia was called out by Governor Matthews, only to be dispersed by the strikers. The President ordered General French, with a body of regulars, to raise the blockade of the road, and that officer succeeded at length in performing his duty. On the 20th of the month a strikers' riot occurred in Baltimore, and nine of the rioters were killed and many others wounded by the troops before order could be restored.

Meanwhile the strike spread rapidly to other and distant localities. In less than a week trains on all the important railways between the Hudson and the Mississippi were stopped. Except in the cotton-growing States, the labor-insurrection was universal. In Pittsburg the strikers gathered to the number of twenty thousand, obtained control of the city, and for two days held a reign of terror. The Union depot, machine-shops and all the railway buildings of the city were burned. One hundred and twenty-five locomotives and two thousand five hundred cars laden with valuable merchandise were destroyed with wild havoc and uproar. The insurrection was at last suppressed by the soldiers, but not until nearly a hundred lives had been lost and property destroyed to the value of more than three million dollars.

By this time travel had ceased. The mails were stopped. Freights perished en route. Business was paralyzed throughout the country. On the 25th of July a terrible riot occurred in Chicago. Fifteen of the insurgents were killed by the police. On the next day St. Louis was imperilled by a mob. San Francisco was the scene of a dangerous outbreak, which was here directed against the Chinese immigrants and the managers of the lumber-yards. Cincinnati, Columbus, Indianapolis, Louisville and Fort Wayne were seriously endangered, but escaped without loss of life or property. By the end of July the insurrection had run its course. Business and travel revived, but the outbreak had shocked the public mind into a sense of hidden peril to American institutions.

WAR WITH THE NEZ PERCÉS INDIANS.

The war with the Sioux was soon followed by that with the Nez Percés. These Indians had their haunts in Idaho. Since 1806 they had been known to the government. Lewis and Clarke had made a treaty with them and missionaries had been sent among them. In 1854 a part of the Nez Percé territory was purchased by the United States, but large reservations were made in Northwestern Idaho and Northeastern Oregon. Some of the chiefs refused to ratify the purchase, and came at length into conflict with white settlers who had entered the disputed regions.

War ensued. General Howard, with a small force of regulars, was sent against the hostile tribes, but the latter, under their noted chief, Joseph, fled in this direction and that, avoiding battle. The pursuit was kept up until fall, when the Nez Percés were hemmed in in Northern Montana by the command of Colonel Miles. Driven across the Missouri River, the Indians were surrounded in their camp north of the Bear Paw Mountains. A hard battle was fought, and only a few braves, led by the chief, White Bird, succeeded in escaping. All the rest were either killed or taken. Three hundred and seventy-five of the captive Nez Percés were brought back to the military posts on the Missouri. The troops

of General Howard had made forced marches through a mountainous country for a distance of *sixteen hundred miles*.

The year 1878 was noted in our financial history for the passage of the Congressional measure known as the Remonetization of Silver. When the American Republic was founded in 1789, one of the most important matters imposed on the treasury was the establishment of a system of coinage. At that time there might be said to be no unit of value in the Old Thirteen States. For the most part the British Pound Sterling, with its subdivisions of shillings and pence, was recognized as the money of account. The Revolution had driven coin from the country, and the devices of paper money, used in the epoch of Independence, were various and uncertain.

By the first coinage regulations of the United States the standard unit of value was the American Silver Dollar, containing three hundred and seventy-one and a fourth grains of pure silver. The Spanish-American dollar had this value, and Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, adapted the new standard to the existing dollar. By this measure it was practicable to recoin Spanish dollars into the American denomination without loss or inconvenience.

From the adoption of this standard in 1792 until 1873 the quantity of pure metal in the standard unit had never been changed, though the amount of alloy was several times altered. From 1792 until 1834 the American silver dollar was virtually the only standard unit. In the year just named the coinage scheme was enlarged and adjusted on a basis of sixteen to one of gold and silver. In 1849 the coinage of a gold dollar was provided for; and from that time forth the standard unit *existed in both metals*. Nor might it be determined whether in accounting in the United States gold was measured by the silver standard or silver by the standard of gold.

DEMONETIZATION AND REMONETIZATION OF SILVER.

With the coming of the Civil War both metals disappeared from circulation and became a commodity of commerce. In the years 1873-74 at a time when owing to the premium on gold and silver both metals were out of circulation, a series of acts was passed by Congress bearing upon the standard of value whereby the legal-tender quality of silver—very adroitly—was first abridged and then abolished. These enactments were completed by the report of the coinage committee in 1874, by which it was provided that the silver dollar should henceforth *be omitted* from the list of coins to be struck at the national mints. The effect of these acts was to leave the gold dollar of twenty-three and twenty-two-hundredths grains the single standard unit of value in the United States. In other words, the effect—coincident with the intent—was to destroy the bi-metallic and to introduce the mono-metallic system of money into our country.

The ulterior object was not far to seek. The time was near at hand when specie payments must be resumed by the government. The debts of the nation were payable *in coin*; that is, in both gold and silver coin, at the option of the payer. Meanwhile the great silver mines of the Western Mountains were discovered. It was foreseen by the debt-holding classes that silver was likely to become abundant and cheap. If that metal should be retained in the coinage, ~~therefore~~, the payment of the national debt would be proportionally easy. It was ~~deemed~~ expedient to strike down *in time* the legal-tender quality of silver in order that the whole payment of the bonded indebtedness of the United States ~~must be~~ made by the standard of a dollar worth more than the dollar of the law and the contract; namely, by the single standard of gold.

The next step in this prodigious scheme was the passage of the Resumption Act. This measure was adopted in 1875. By its provision was made that on the 1st of January, 1879,

the government of the United States should begin to redeem its outstanding obligations in coin. As the time for resumption drew near the premium on gold fell off, and at length the question was raised as to the meaning of the word "coin" in the act of resuming specie payment. Now for the first time the attention of the people at large was aroused to the fact that by the acts of 1873-74 the privilege and right of paying debts in silver had been taken away! It was perceived that after the beginning of 1879 all obligations, both public and private, must be discharged according to the measure of the gold dollar only.

The situation justified the tumult that followed. A cry for the remonetization of silver was heard everywhere. Vainly did the bond-holding interest of the country exert itself to stay the tide. The question reached the government, and early in 1878 a measure was passed by Congress for the restoration of the legal-tender quality of the old silver dollar and providing for the compulsory coinage of that unit at the mints, at the rate of not less than two millions of dollars a month. Notwithstanding the unanimity of the country in favor of the measure, the President vetoed it; but the veto was crushed under a tremendous majority, for nearly three-fourths of the members of Congress, without respect to party affiliations, gave their support to the bill. The old double standard of values was thus measurably restored, but the fight for the preservation of silver as a monetary unit was only begun.

THE YELLOW FEVER PLAGUE.

The year 1878 was noted for the prevalence of yellow fever in the Gulf States of the Union. The disease appeared first at New Orleans, but was quickly scattered among the other towns of the Lower Mississippi. The terror spread from place to place, and people began to fly from the pestilence. The cities of Memphis and Grenada became scenes of desolation. At Vicksburg the plague was almost equally terrible. The malady extended into the parish towns, and as far north as Nashville and Louisville. Throughout the summer months the helpless population of the infested districts languished and died by thousands. In the North a system of contributions was established, and men and treasure were poured out without stint. The efforts of the Howard Association at New Orleans, Memphis and other cities were almost unequalled in heroism and sacrifice. More than twenty thousand people fell victims to the plague, and its ravages were not staid until the coming of frost.

HALIFAX FISHERY AWARD.

The eighteenth article of the Treaty of Washington conceded an enlargement of rights to the fishermen of the United States in certain waters hitherto controlled exclusively by Great Britain. The privilege of taking fish of every kind—excepting shellfish—along certain shores and in the bays and harbors of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Islands and Quebec was guaranteed to American fishermen. Our government, on the other hand, agreed to relinquish the duties hitherto charged on certain kinds of fish imported into American markets. In order to balance any difference which might appear in the aggregate of such mutual concessions, it was further agreed that any total advantage to the United States arising from the treaty might be balanced by the payment of a sum in gross to Great Britain. To determine what such sum might be a commission was provided for. One member of the body should be appointed by the Queen, one by the President of the United States, and in case the Queen and the President should not agree on the third, he was to be selected by the Austrian ambassador at the court of St. James. The provision for the third commissioner was one of the strangest incidents of diplomatical history. It chanced that the appointment of umpire was given to Count Von Buest, a Saxon renegade and hater of republican institutions, temporarily resident as Austrian ambassador *in London*.

The commission was constituted in the summer of 1877, at Halifax. Little attention was given to the proceedings until November, when it was announced that by the casting vote of Herr Delfosse, Belgian Minister to the United States, who had been named as umpire by the Austrian ambassador, the sum of five million dollars had been awarded against the American government. The decision was received with the utmost surprise, both in the United States and Europe. The National government, however, decided to stand by the award rather than renounce the principle of arbitration. The result was such as to warrant the sarcasm of the times that Great Britain had got even with the United States on the score of the Alabama award.

It was in this year that a Resident Chinese Embassy was established at Washington City. For twenty years the Burlingame treaty between the United States and China had been in force. Commercial intercourse had been enlarged between the two countries, and race prejudice was to a certain extent broken down. At length the Chinese Emperor was assured that his minister would be received at Washington with all the courtesy shown to the representative of the most favored nation. Official representatives were accordingly sent from the Imperial government to the United States. These were Chen Lan Pin, Minister Plenipotentiary; Yun Wing, Assistant Envoy, and Yun Tsang Sing, Secretary of Legation. On the 28th of September the embassy was received by the President; the ceremonies of the occasion being the most novel ever witnessed in Washington City.

LIFE-SAVING SERVICE AND SPECIE RESUMPTION.

It was at this time that a bill, introduced by Honorable Samuel S. Cox, of New York, for the organization of the Life-saving Service of the United States, was brought before Congress, and on the 18th of June, 1878, was adopted by that body. The act provided for the establishment of stations and light-houses on all the exposed parts of the Atlantic coast and along the great lakes. Each station was to be manned by a company of experienced surfmen, drilled in the best methods of rescue and resuscitation. All manner of appliances known to the science of the age was added to the equipment of the stations, and the success of the work was such as to reflect the highest credit upon its promoters. For the day the question of giving succor to shipwrecked sailors engrossed the attention of the Government, and the people grew anxious to provide against the perils of "them that go down to the sea in ships."

In accordance with the legislation of 1875 the Resumption of Specie Payments was effected on the 1st of January, 1879. During the four years of interim the premium on gold had gradually declined. In the last month of 1878 the difference



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between the value of gold and paper dollars was so slight as to be scarcely perceptible in business. For a few days the premium hovered about one per cent., then sank to the level and disappeared. The Gold Room of New York City was closed and metallic money reappeared on the counters of banks and in the safes of merchants. For seventeen years gold and silver had been used in merchandise, the legal-tender dollar of the Government constituting the standard of value. The fact of resumption was hailed by many as the end of the epoch of speculation and the beginning of a better financial era.

Thus passed away the administration of Hayes. It was a peculiar quadrennium in American history. The methods of the President lacked emphasis, and there was nothing spectacular in the Government during his occupancy of the presidential chair. Many doubts entered into the public mind concerning the legality of his election. It should be said, however, that his administration had in it more of the genuine elements of reform than had existed in any other since the days of Fillmore. His Cabinet was the ablest of its kind since the ascendancy of Webster as Secretary of State. Nevertheless, both the President and his work were unpopular. The Congressional elections of 1878 went strongly against the Republicans. Everything seemed to foretoken the restoration of the Democratic party

to power. The Republican National Convention of 1880 was held in Chicago, on the 2d and 3d of June. The platform adopted was retrospective. The party in power looked to the past for its renown and honor. After two days of balloting, General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, was nominated for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1880.

On the 22d of June the Democratic National Convention assembled in Cincinnati. The platform adopted declared adherence to the doctrines and traditions of the party; opposed centralization; adhered to gold and silver money and paper convertible into coin; advocated a tariff for revenue only and denounced the party in power. On this platform the convention nominated for the presidency General Winfield S. Hancock, of New York, and for the vice-presidency William H. English, of Indiana.



GENERAL WINFIELD HANCOCK.

The convention of the National Greenback party was held in Chicago on the 9th of June. General James B. Weaver, of Iowa, and Benjamin J. Chambers, of Texas, were named as the standard-bearers. The platform declared for the rights of labor as against the exactions of capital; denounced monopolies; proclaimed the sovereign power of the Government over the coinage of metallic and the issuance of paper money; advocated the abolition of national banks; declared for the payment of the bonded debt of the United States; denounced land-grants; opposed Chinese immigration, and favored the equal taxation of all property.

It was at this time, namely, in the canvass of 1880, that the Third-party movement

reached its climax for the decade. The more rational part of the principles of the Greenback party had in them a quality which demanded the assent of a respectable minority of the American people. The correctness of these principles was afterwards carried for judgment to the Supreme Court of the United States, was there argued by the ablest Constitutional lawyers before a full Bench, and was decided with only a single dissenting opinion in favor of the Greenback theory of legal-tender paper money, and its validity *as* money, independent of coin redemption. But politically the party representing these ideas was doomed to failure. The contest of 1880 lay as usual between the Republican and Democratic parties. The long-standing sectional division into North and South once more decided the contest in favor of the former. That clause of the Democratic platform which declared for a tariff for revenue only alarmed the manufacturing interests and consolidated them in favor of the Republican candidates. The banking and bond-holding classes rallied to the same standard, and the old war spirit against the "Solid South" did the rest. Garfield and Arthur were elected by an electoral vote of two hundred and fourteen against one hundred and fifty-five votes for Hancock and English. General Weaver received no electoral votes, though the popular vote given to him reached an aggregate of three hundred and seven thousand.

The closing session of the forty-sixth Congress was mostly occupied with the work of refunding the national debt. About \$750,000,000 of the five and six per cent. bonds now reached maturity, and it became necessary for the government to take them up either by payment or refunding. As for payment, that was in part impracticable. As matter of fact, payment was not desired by the bond-holders, and was not contemplated by the government. A bill was passed for the issuance of new bonds of two classes, both bearing three per cent. interest; the first class payable in from five to twenty years, and the second class in from one to ten years. The latter bonds were to be issued in small denominations, to give the measure the appearance of a popular loan. One provision of the bill required the national banks to surrender their high-rate bonds and accept the new three per cents. instead. This clause aroused the antagonism of the banks, and they sought in every possible way to prevent the passage of the bill. The measure as proposed was repugnant to capitalists and bond-holders as a class. These forces at length prevailed, and though the bill was passed by Congress, the President returned it with his objections, and the measure failed. The question of refunding was thus carried over to the next administration.

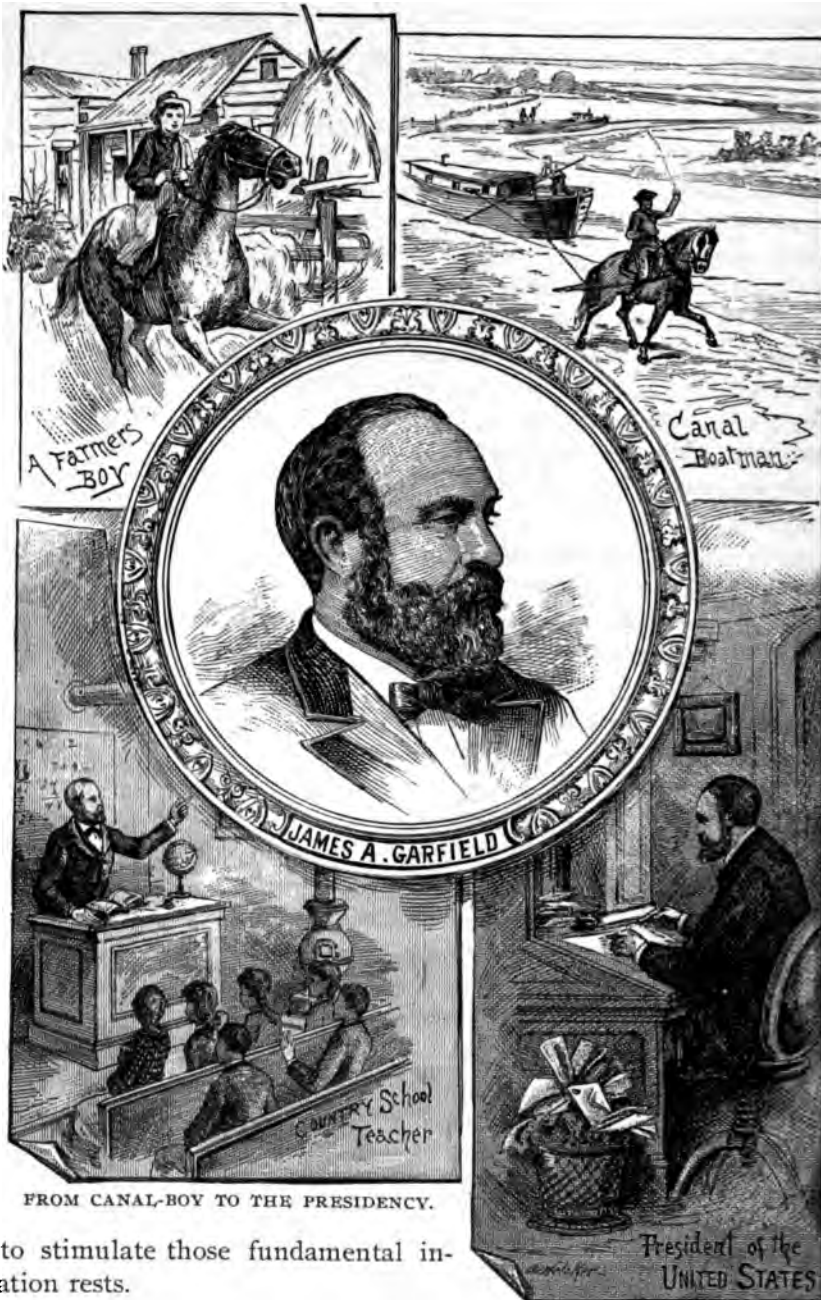
GRANT'S TOUR AROUND THE WORLD.

At the end of his Presidential term General Grant with his family and a company of personal friends set out to visit the countries of Europe and Asia. The party left Philadelphia in May of 1877. The event immediately demonstrated the fact that General Grant was regarded by the world as one of the most important personages of modern times. His procession from place to place became a constant pageant, such as was never before accorded to a private citizen of any nation of the earth. The journey of the ex-President was first through the principal cities of England, and afterwards to Belgium, Switzerland, Prussia and France. The company then made a brief stay in Italy, and from thence went by voyage to Alexandria; thence to Palestine; and afterwards to Greece. In the following year the General returned to Italy, and passed the summer in Denmark, Sweden and Norway. He then visited Austria and Russia, but returned for the winter to the south of France and Spain. In January of 1879 the party embarked for the East. The following year was spent in India, Burmah, Siam, China and Japan. In the fall of that year the company reached San Francisco, bearing the highest tokens of esteem which the nations of the Old World could bestow on the honored representative of the New.

The census of 1880 was conducted under the skilful superintendency of Professor Francis A. Walker, who had already directed the census of the previous decennium. More than ever before was the astonishing progress of the United States now revealed and illustrated. The population had increased to 50,152,866, showing an increase for the decade of a million inhabitants a year. The population of the State of New York had risen to more than five millions. Nevada, least populous of the States, showed an enumeration of 62,265. Of the increment of population 2,246,551 had been contributed by immigration, of whom about eighty-five thousand annually came from Germany. The number of cities having a population of over a hundred thousand had increased in ten years from fourteen to twenty-five. The centre of population had moved westward to a point near the city of Cincinnati.

It was at this time, namely, in 1880, that the current of the precious metals turned once more towards America. In that year the imports of specie exceeded the exports by more than seventy-five million dollars. Meanwhile abundant crops had followed in almost unbroken succession, and the overplus of American products had gone to enrich the country and to stimulate those fundamental industries upon which the nation rests.

The necrology of this epoch shows many distinguished names. Among these may be mentioned Senator Oliver P. Morton, of Indiana, who after battling for years against the encroachments of paralysis, died at his home in Indianapolis, November 1st, 1877. The great poet William Cullen Bryant, now at the advanced age of



eighty-four, passed away on the 12th of June, 1878. On the 19th of December, in the same year, the illustrious Bayard Taylor, recently appointed American Minister to the German empire, died suddenly at Berlin. On the 1st of November, 1879, Senator Zachariah Chandler, of Michigan, one of the founders of the Republican party, died, after a brief illness in Chicago. On the 24th of February, 1881, another Senator, Matthew H. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, after a long sickness at Washington City, passed away.

LIFE OF GARFIELD.

Garfield was the twentieth President of the United States. He was born at Orange, Cuyahoga county, Ohio, November 19th, 1831. He was left in infancy to the care of his mother and the rude surroundings of a backwoods home. There he found the rudiments of an education. Further on in youth he served as a pilot on a canal boat plying the Ohio and Pennsylvania canal. At seventeen he entered the high school in Chester, and in his twentieth year became a student at Hiram College. In that institution he was chosen as an instructor until 1854. He then went to Williams College, and from that institution was graduated with honor. Returning to Ohio, he was first a professor and afterwards president of Hiram College. This position he gave up to become a soldier at the outbreak of the Civil War. In the meantime he had studied law, imbibed a love for politics, and been elected to the Senate of Ohio.

As a soldier Garfield rose through the grades of Lieutenant-Colonel, Colonel, and Brigadier-General, to become Chief of Staff to General Rosecrans. In that relation he bore a distinguished part in the battle of Chickamauga. While still in the field he was elected by the people of his home district to the House of Representatives, in which body he served continuously for seventeen years. In 1879 he was elected to the Senate of the United States; but before entering upon his duties was nominated and elected to the presidency.

The inaugural address of March 4th, 1881, was a paper of high grade. A retrospect of American progress was given. The country was congratulated on its rank among the nations. The topics of politics were reviewed, and the policy of the incoming executive defined with clearness and precision. The public-school system of the United States was defended. Some kind words were spoken for the South, as if to assuage the heartburnings of the Civil War. The maintenance of the National Bank system was recommended, and the equal political rights of the Black Men of the South advocated.



JAMES G. BLAINE.

The new cabinet was constituted as follows: Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, of Maine; Secretary of the Treasury, William Windom, of Minnesota; Secretary of War, Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois; Secretary of the Navy, William H. Hunt, of Louisiana; Secretary of the Interior, Samuel J. Kirkwood, of Iowa; Attorney-General, Wayne MacVeagh, of Pennsylvania; Postmaster-General, Thomas L. James, of New York. The nominations were at once confirmed, and the new administration was established in office.

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

Now arose the great question of a Reform of the Civil Service. This matter had been handed down from the administration of Hayes, under whom efforts had been made to

introduce better methods of selecting persons for the appointive offices of the government. The real issue was—and has always been—whether the choice of the officials of the government should be made on the ground of the character and fitness of the candidates, or on the principle of distributing political patronage to those who had best served the party; whether men should be promoted from the lower to the higher grades of official life and retained according to the value and proficiency of their services, or whether they should be elevated to positions in proportion to their success in carrying elections and maintaining the party in power.

The members of Congress held strongly to the old order of things, being unwilling to give up their influence over the appointive power. To them it seemed essential that the spoils should belong to the victors. President Hayes had attempted to establish the opposite policy, but near the close of his term had been driven from the field. The Republican platform of 1880 vaguely indorsed civil service reform, and some expectation existed that



ROSCOE CONKLING.

Garfield would attempt to promote that policy; but the rush of office-seekers at the beginning of his term was overwhelming. Washington City was thronged by the hungry horde who had "carried the election;" and all plans and purposes of reform in the civil service were crushed out of sight and trampled under feet of men.

This break from the declared principles of the party was soon followed by a serious political disaster. A division arose in the Republican ranks threatening disruption to the organization. Two wings of the party appeared, nicknamed respectively the "Half-breeds" and the "Stalwarts." The latter faction, headed by Senator Roscoe Conkling, of New York, had recently distinguished itself by supporting General Grant for a third term in the presidency. The Half-breeds regarded James G. Blaine, now Secretary of State, as their leader, supported and endorsed as he was by the President. The Stalwarts claimed their part of the spoils, that is, of the appointive offices of the Government. The President, however, leading the professed reform element in politics, insisted on naming the officers in the various States independently of the wishes of the Congressmen therefrom.

This policy brought on a crisis. The collectorship of customs for the port of New York, being the best appointive office in the gift of the government, was contended for by both factions. The President appointed to this position Judge William Robertson, and the appointment was antagonized by the New York Senators, Roscoe Conkling and Thomas C. Platt; but Robertson's appointment was nevertheless confirmed by the Senate, whereupon Conkling and Platt resigned their seats, returned to their State, and failed of reelection. The breach became so wide as to threaten the dismemberment of the Republican party.

ASSASSINATION OF GARFIELD.

Just after the adjournment of the Senate, in June, President Garfield made arrangements to visit Williams College, where his two sons were to be placed as students. The President also contemplated a short vacation with his wife, who was sick at the seaside. On the morning of July 2d, accompanied by Secretary Blaine and a few friends, the President entered

the Baltimore railway station at Washington, preparatory to taking the train for Long Branch, New Jersey. A moment afterwards he was approached by a miserable political miscreant named Charles Jules Guiteau, who came unseen behind the President, drew a pistol, and fired upon him. The aim of the assassin was too well taken, and the second shot struck the President centrally in the right side of the back. The bleeding man was quickly borne away to the Executive Mansion and the vile criminal was hurried to prison.

The best surgical aid was at once summoned and bulletins were issued daily containing a brief account of the President's condition. After three days the conviction gained ground that he would ultimately recover. Two surgical operations were performed in the hope of saving his life; but a series of relapses occurred, and blood-poisoning set in. The President weakened under his suffering. As a last hope, he was on the 6th of September carefully conveyed from Washington City to Elberon, where he was placed in a cottage near the surf. For a few days hope revived; but the patient sank away. On the eightieth day after the shot was fired, namely, on the evening of September 19th, the anniversary of the battle of Chickamauga, in which Garfield had gained his principal military reputation, his vital powers suddenly gave way, and death closed the scene. Through the whole period of his suffering he had borne the pain and anguish of his situation with the greatest fortitude and heroism. The great crime which now laid him low heightened rather than eclipsed the lustre of his life.

Chester A. Arthur, Vice-president, at once took the oath of office and became President of the United States. For the fourth time in the history of the Republic the duties of

the chief magistracy were devolved on the second officer. As for the dead Garfield his funeral was observed first at Washington, whither his body was taken and placed in state in the rotunda of the Capitol. Here it was viewed by tens of thousands of people on the 22d and 23d of September. The dead President had chosen Lake View cemetery at Cleveland as the place of his burial. The remains were conveyed thither by way of Philadelphia and Pittsburg. As in the case of Lincoln's death there was a continuous pageant on the way. The body was laid to rest on the 26th of September, the day being observed as one of mourning throughout the country.

GUITEAU, THE ASSASSIN, AND HIS MISERABLE END.

The assassin Guiteau proved to be a half-crazy adventurer—a fool. He loudly proclaimed his deed, saying that he had shot the President in order to “remove him,” and save the country! Here began the extreme unwisdom of the authorities in regard to what should be done with this crazed moral idiot. Two constructions of the case were possible: Either



ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

Guiteau was a sane man and had committed the greatest and vilest of political assassinations, or else he was a lunatic, who under the influence of an insane hallucination had shot and killed the President. Common sense, prudence, patriotism, political sagacity and the whole array of facts regarding the prisoner's character and conduct pointed unmistakably to his lunacy and to the second construction given above. But prejudice, anger, folly, shortsightedness, newspaper sensationalism and the vengeful passions which flamed up in the excitement of the hour, conspired to establish the theory of Guiteau's sanity, with the appalling conclusion that the President of the United States *had been politically assassinated*. This theory was taken up and preached with insane ferocity until it prevailed. The voice of reason was drowned and the opportunity to save the American people from the stain of



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

political assassination was put aside in sheer passion. Guiteau was indicted and tried for murder. During the trial the crowds around the courthouse at Washington were little less than a mob. The proceedings must perforce end with a conviction and condemnation to death. Then followed a second sensational imprisonment, and on the 30th of June, 1882, Guiteau was taken from the jail and hanged.

Chester A. Arthur was a native of Franklin county, Vermont, where he was born October 5th, 1830. He was of Irish parentage, was educated at Union College, from which he was graduated in 1849. For a while he taught school in Vermont and then went to New York City to study law. He soon rose to distinction. During the Civil War he was quartermaster-general of the State of New York. In 1871 he was appointed collector of customs for the port of New York, a

position which he held until 1878, when he was removed from office by President Hayes. Two years afterwards he was nominated and elected Vice-president. Then followed the killing of Garfield and the accession of Arthur to the chief magistracy.

On the 22d of September the oath of office was a *second* time administered to the new President at the Capitol by Chief Justice Waite. Arthur delivered a brief address; but the ceremonies were few and simple. General Grant, ex-President Hayes, Senator Sherman and his brother, the General of the Army, were present and paid their respects to the President; but the circumstances forbade any elaborate or joyful display.

The members of the cabinet, in accordance with custom, at once resigned their offices. The resignations, however, were not accepted, the President inviting all the members to retain their places. For the present all the members remained except Windom, Secretary of the Treasury, who retired, and was succeeded by Judge Charles J. Folger, of New York. Mr. MacVeagh also resigned in a short time, and was succeeded by Benjamin H. Brewster,

of Philadelphia. These changes were soon followed by the resignations of Mr. Blaine, Secretary of State, and Mr. James, Postmaster-General, who gave place to Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, and Timothy O. Howe, of Wisconsin. Robert T. Lincoln remained, as by common consent, at the head of the Department of War. Though Garfield and Arthur had come from opposite wings of the Republican party, there was little tendency shown by the latter to revolutionize the policy of his predecessor.

THE STAR ROUTE SCANDAL.

Arthur's administration, however, inherited the troubles and complications of the preceding. One of the first of these was the important State trial relating to the alleged Star Route Conspiracy. There had been organized in the post-office department a class of fast mail routes known as the Star Routes, the object being to carry the mails with rapidity and certainty into distant and almost inaccessible portions of the Western States and Territories. There was a restriction as to expenditure, but the law gave the Postmaster-General a certain discretion in the matter of *expediting* such mail routes as seemed to be less efficient than the service required. This gave to certain officers of the government the opportunity to let the contracts for many mail lines at a minimum, and then—under their discretionary power—to “expedite” the same lines into efficiency at exorbitant rates, the end and aim being to divide the spoils among the parties to the contract.

This conspiracy was unearthed before the death of Garfield, and Attorney-General MacVeagh was directed to prosecute the reputed conspirators. Indictments were found by the Grand Jury against ex-United States Senator Stephen W. Dorsey, of Arkansas; Second Assistant Postmaster-General Thomas J. Brady, of Indiana, and several others of less note. Mr. MacVeagh, however, seemed to act with little spirit and no success in the prosecution. Attorney-General Brewster then took the question up, and those indicted for conspiracy were brought to trial. After several weeks the cause went to the jury, who absurdly brought in a verdict convicting certain subordinates of participating in a conspiracy which could not have existed without the guilt of their superiors! The people, however, were angered at the scandal, and the Republican defeat in the State elections of 1882 was attributed in part to popular disgust over the Star Route Conspiracy.

GREAT INVENTIONS OF THE EPOCH.

We may avail ourselves of the space here afforded to note briefly a few of the features of the progress of physical science in recent times. It has now been perceived that the sources of human happiness lie far removed from the fictitious splendors of public life. History is departing more and more from the methods of the old annalists to depict the movements of human thought and the adaptation of the physical means of amelioration and progress. It is safe to aver that the recent additions by inventive processes to the resources of physical happiness are the most striking and valuable feature of the civilization of our times. At no other age in the history of the world has a practical knowledge of the laws of nature been so widely and so rapidly diffused. At no other epoch has the subjection of natural agents to the will of man been so wonderfully displayed. The old life of the human race is giving place to a new life based on scientific research and energized by the knowledge that the conditions of our environment are as benevolent as they are unchangeable.

It has remained for American genius to solve the problem of oral communication between persons at a distance from each other. The scientists of our day, knowing the laws of sound and electricity, have devised an apparatus for transmitting the human voice to a distance of hundreds, or even thousands, of miles. The TELEPHONE must stand as a

reminder to after ages of the genius and skill and progress of our country in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. This instrument seems to have been the work of several ingenious minds directed to the same problem at the same time. The solution of the problem, however, should be accredited to Elisha P. Gray, of Chicago, and Alexander Graham Bell, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. It should be mentioned also that Amos E. Dolbear, of Tufts's College, Massachusetts, and Thomas A. Edison, of New Jersey, likewise succeeded in solving the difficulties in the way of telephonic communication, or at least in answering practically some of the minor questions in the way of success.

The telephone is an instrument for the reproduction of sound, particularly of the human voice, by the agency of electricity, at long distances from the origin of vocal production. The phenomenon called *sound* consists of a wave agitation communicated through the particles of some medium to the organ of hearing. Every particular sound has its own physical equivalent in a system of waves in which it is written. The only thing, therefore, that is necessary in order to carry a sound in its integrity to any distance, is to transmit its physical equivalent and to redeliver that equivalent to some organ of hearing capable of receiving it.

Upon these scientific principles the telephone has been produced. Every sound which falls upon the sheet-iron disc of the instrument communicates thereto a sort of tremor. This tremor causes the disc to approach and recede from the magnetic pole placed just behind the diaphragm. A current of electricity is thus induced, pulsates along the wire to the other end, and is delivered to the metallic disc of the second instrument many miles away just as it was produced in the first. The ear of the hearer receives from the second instrument the exact physical equivalent of the sound or sounds which were delivered against the disc of the first instrument, and thus the utterance is received at a distance just as it was given forth.

The telephone stands to the credit of Professors Gray and Bell. Long before their day, however, some of the principles on which the instrument has been created were known. As early as 1837 the philosopher Page succeeded in transmitting musical tones to a distance. Forty years afterwards, namely, in 1877, Professor Bell, in a public lecture at Salem, Massachusetts, astonished his audience and the whole country by receiving and transmitting vocal messages from Boston, twenty miles away. Incredulity was dispelled in the face of the fact that persons far away were actually conversing with each other by means of the telephone. The experiments of Gray at Chicago, only a few days later, were equally successful. Messages between that city and Milwaukee, a distance of eighty-five miles, were plainly delivered. Nor could it be longer doubted that a new era in the means of communication had come.

THE PHONOGRAPH.

The telephone was soon followed by the PHONOGRAPH. Both inventions are based on the same principle of science. The discovery that every sound has its physical equivalent in a wave or agitation led almost inevitably to the other discovery of catching, or retaining, that equivalent, or wave, in the surface of some body, and to the reproduction of the original sound therefrom.

The phonograph consists of three principal parts; the sender, or funnel-shaped tube, with its open mouthpiece, standing toward the operator; the diaphragm and stylus connected therewith, which receive the sound spoken into the tube; and the revolving cylinder, with its sheet coating of tinfoil laid over the surface of a spiral groove, to receive the indentations of the point of the stylus. The mode of operation is simple: The cylinder is

revolved and a sound thrown into the mouthpiece causes the iron disc, or diaphragm, to vibrate, or tremble. This agitation is carried through the stylus to the tinfoil, and written upon it in irregular marks, dots and figures. When the utterance is to be reproduced the instrument is stopped, the stylus lifted from the groove, and the cylinder revolved backwards to the place of starting. The stylus is returned to its place and the cylinder set to revolving forward. As the stylus plays up and down in the indentations, lines and figures in the tinfoil, a quiver exactly equivalent to that produced by the utterance in the mouthpiece is communicated *backwards* to the diaphragm and thrown into the air. This agitation being the equivalent of the original sound, reproduces that sound as perfectly as the machinery of the instrument will permit. Thus the phonograph is made to talk, to sing, to cry, to utter any sound sufficiently powerful to produce a perceptible tremor in the mouthpiece and diaphragm of the instrument. The phonograph makes it possible to read *by the ear* instead of by the eye, and it is not beyond the range of probability that the book of the future will be written in phonographic plates.

EVOLUTION OF THE ELECTRIC LIGHT.

Probably the most marked and valuable invention of the age is the ELECTRIC LIGHT. The introduction of this system of illumination marks an important epoch in the history of our country. The project of introducing the electric light was agitated for the first time about the beginning of the eighth decade of the century. The advantages of such lighting, could the same be attained, were as many as they were obvious. The light is so powerful as to render practicable many operations as easily by night as by day. The danger by fire from illuminating sources is almost wholly obviated by the new system. A given amount of illumination can be produced much more cheaply by electricity than by any means of gas-lighting or ordinary combustion.

Early in 1875 the philosopher Gramme, of Paris, succeeded in lighting his laboratory by means of electricity. Soon afterwards the foundry of Ducommun and Company, of Mulhouse, was similarly lighted. In the following year the apparatus for lighting by means of carbon candles was introduced in many of the factories of France and other countries of Europe.

Lighting by electricity is accomplished in several ways. In general, however, the principle by which the result is effected is one, and depends upon the resistance which the electrical current meets in its transmission through various substances. There are no perfect conductors of electricity. In proportion as the non-conductive quality is prevalent in a substance, especially in a metal, the resistance to the passage of electricity is pronounced, and the consequent disturbance among the molecular particles of the substance is great. Whenever such resistance is encountered in a circuit, the electricity is converted into heat, and when the resistance is great, the heat is, in turn, converted into light, or rather the heat becomes phenomenal in light; that is, the substance which offers the resistance glows with the transformed energy of the impeded current. Upon this simple principle all the apparatus for the production of the electric light is produced.

Among the metallic substances, the one best adapted by its low conductivity to such resistance and transformation of force, is platinum. The high degree of heat necessary to fuse this metal adds to its usefulness and availability for the purpose indicated. When an electrical current is forced along a platinum wire too small to transmit the entire volume, it becomes at once heated—first to a red, and then to a white glow—and is thus made to send forth a radiance like that of the sun. Of the non-metallic elements which offer simi-

lar resistance, the best is carbon. The infusibility of this substance renders it greatly superior to platinum for purposes of the electric light.

Near the beginning of the present century it was discovered by Sir Humphrey Davy that carbon points may be rendered incandescent by means of a powerful electric current. The discovery was fully developed in 1869, while the philosopher just referred to was experimenting with the great battery of the Royal Institution of London. He observed—rather by accident than by design, or previous anticipation—that a strong volume of electricity passing between two bits of wood charcoal produces tremendous heat, and a light like that of the sun. It appears, however, that Davy at first regarded the phenomenon rather in the nature of an interesting display of force than as a suggestion of the possibility of turning night into day.

For nearly three-quarters of a century the discovery made by Sir Humphrey Davy lay dormant among the great mass of scientific facts revealed in the laboratory. In course of time, however, the nature of the new fact began to be apprehended. The electric lamp in many forms was proposed and tried. The scientists, Niardet, Wilde, Brush, Fuller, and many others of less note, busied themselves with the work of invention. Especially did Gramme and Siemens devote their scientific genius to the work of turning to good account the knowledge now fully possessed of the transformability of the electric current into light.

The experiments of the last named two distinguished inventors brought us to the dawn of the new era in artificial lighting. The Russian philosopher, Jablochhoff, carried the work still further by the practical introduction of the carbon candle. Other scientists—Carré, Foucault, Serrin, Rapiéff, and Werdermann—had, at an earlier or later day, thrown much additional information into the common stock of knowledge relative to the illuminating possibilities of electricity. Finally, the accumulated materials of science fell into the hands of that untutored but remarkably radical inventor, Thomas A. Edison, who gave himself with the utmost zeal to the work of removing the remaining difficulties in the problem.

EDISON, THE WIZARD OF THE AGE.

Edison began his investigations in this line of invention in September of 1878, and in December of the following year gave to the public his first formal statement of the results. After many experiments with platinum, he abandoned that material in favor of the carbon-arc in vacuo. The latter is, indeed, the essential feature of the Edison light. A small semi-circle, or horseshoe, of some substance, such as a filament of bamboo reduced to the form of pure carbon, the two ends being attached to the poles of the generating-machine, or dynamo, as the engine is popularly called, is enclosed in a glass bulb from which the air has been carefully withdrawn, and is rendered incandescent by the passage of an electric current. The other important features of Edison's discovery relate to the divisibility of the current, and its control and regulation in volume by the operator. These matters were fully mastered in the Edison invention, and the apparatus rendered as completely subject to management as are other varieties of illuminating agencies.

The question of artificial light has much to do with the progress of mankind, and particularly with the government and welfare of cities. The old systems of illumination must soon give place to the splendors of the electric glow. This change in the physical conditions of society must be as marked as it is salutary. Darkness has always been the enemy of good government. The ease, happiness and comfort of the human race must be vastly multiplied by the dispelling of darkness and the distribution of light by night. The progress

of civilization depends in a large measure upon a knowledge of nature's laws and a diffusion of that knowledge among the people. One of the best examples ever furnished in the whole history of human progress of the results of such knowledge has been the invention of the electric light.

GREAT FEATS OF ENGINEERING.

The bridge-building of our age furnishes another example of physical progress and amelioration. At no other time in modern history has civil engineering been turned to so good an account. The principal place among the recent public works in the United States may well be given to the great Suspension Bridge over the strait known as East River, between New York and Brooklyn. The completion and formal opening of this work occurred on the 24th of May, 1883, exciting universal attention and eliciting many descriptions.

The Brooklyn bridge is the longest and largest structure of the kind in the world. It was designed by John A. Roebling, originator of wire suspension bridges. Under his supervision and that of his son, Washington A. Roebling, the bridge was completed.* The elder of these two eminent engineers was already known to fame as the builder of the first suspension bridge across the chasm of Niagara, and of the still greater structure of the same character across the Ohio River, between Cincinnati and Covington. The Cincinnati bridge was at the time of its erection the longest by a thousand feet of any of its kind. The younger Roebling inherited his father's genius, and after the death of the latter showed himself equal to the great task imposed upon him in preparing the plans and superintending the construction of the East River bridge.



THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

This bridge is a structure supported by four enormous wires, or cables, stretching in a single span from pier to pier a distance of 1,595 feet. From the main towers to the anchorages on either side is 930 feet; from the anchorages outward to the termini of the approaches is, on the New York side, a distance of 1,562 feet, and on the Brooklyn side 972 feet, making the total length of the bridge and approaches 5,989 feet. The total weight of the structure is 64,700 tons; the estimated capacity of support is 1,740 tons, and the ultimate resistance is calculated at 49,200 tons. The Brooklyn bridge was formally opened in May of 1883. The event drew to the metropolis the attention of the American people, and excited somewhat the admiration of foreign nations.

Perhaps the finest example of cantilever bridge in America is the great structure of that order over the Niagara River just above the village of Suspension Bridge, New York. The

* The personal history of the Roeblings, father and son, in connection with their great work, is as pathetic as it is interesting. The elder engineer was injured while laying the foundation of one of the shore-piers on the 22d of July, 1869, and died of lockjaw. W. A. Roebling then took up his father's unfinished task. He continued the work of supervision for about two years, when he was prostrated with a peculiar form of paralysis known as the "Caisson disease," from which he never fully recovered. His mental faculties, however, remained unimpaired, and he was able to direct with his eye what his hands could no longer execute. While thus prostrated, his wife developed a genius almost equal to that of her husband and her father-in-law. The palsied engineer, thus reinforced, continued for five years to furnish the plans for the work. These plans were almost all drawn by his wife, who never flagged under the tasks imposed upon her. In 1876 Roebling was partly restored to health, and lived to hear the applause which his genius and enterprise had won.

architect was the distinguished civil engineer C. E. Schneider. The bridge has a total length of 910 feet, and crosses the river with a single span of 470 feet. The roadway is 239 feet above the water level in the chasm below. The materials are steel and iron. The bridge as a work of architecture is one of the most beautiful of its kind in the world.

Another notable example of recent bridge building is the new Washington bridge extending from the upper extremity of Manhattan Island across the gorge of the Harlem River to Westchester county, on the other side. The work is regarded as the finest and grandest of its kind ever erected in America. The structure is of steel and granite and bronze. The chasm is spanned by two magnificent arches having plate girders of steel, each arch being from foot to foot a distance of 510 feet. The piers are of solid masonry, rising to the level of the roadway. The viaduct is supported on vertical posts which rise from the arches. The height of the roadway above the level of tide-water in the Harlem is 152 feet, being 40 feet in excess of the corresponding measurement under the East River suspension bridge. All of the ornamentation of the Washington bridge is of bronze. The work was constructed in 1888-89, under the direction of the eminent civil engineer William R. Hutton.

In civil affairs the administration of Arthur proved to be uneventful. In the domain of politics might be noted the gradual obliteration of those sharply defined issues which for the last quarter of a century had divided the two great parties. There was a healthful abatement of partisan rancor. It became each year more apparent that the questions at issue in the political arena were merely factitious—devised by those interested for the hour and the occasion. Nor might any discern in this decade how much longer this ill-founded method of political division might be maintained among the American people.

TARIFF QUESTION—THE ARGUMENT FOR FREE TRADE.

To the general fact that party questions were no longer vital and distinct there was one notable exception. The American people were from 1880 to 1892 really and sincerely divided on the question of the Tariff. Whether the true policy of the United States is that of free trade or a protective system was a fundamental issue, and the decision was long postponed. The policy of gathering immense revenues, from customs-duties during the Civil War, and in the decade thereafter, had become firmly imbedded as a factor in the industrial and commercial systems of the country. A great manufacturing interest had been stimulated into unusual, not to say inordinate, activity. Practically the political parties had become so much entangled with the finances and the industries of the country that no party discipline could withdraw and align the political forces in columns and battalions as of old. The question was fundamentally as ancient as the republic. Ever and anon, from the foundation of the government, the tariff issue had obtruded itself upon the attention of the people. It may not be deemed inappropriate in this connection to state and briefly elucidate the various views which have been entertained on the subject.

First, we have what is called the doctrine of Free Trade, pure and simple. The theory is, in a word, as follows: The indications of profitable industry are found in nature. The hints and suggestions of the natural world are the true indications to mankind as to how the various industries which human genius has devised are to be most profitably directed. Thus, a rich soil means agriculture. A barren soil is the indication of nature against agricultural pursuits. Beds of ore signify mining; veins of petroleum, oil-wells; a headlong river, water-power; hills of silica, glass-works; forests of pine, ship-masts and coal-tar; bays and havens and rivers, commerce. Free trade says that these things are the

voice and edict of the natural world as to how human industry shall be exerted. The way to wealth, prosperity, happiness, is to follow the edict of nature whithersoever it calls. To go against nature is to go against common sense. *Laissez faire*, that is, "Let alone," is the fundamental motto of the system—hands off, and no meddling with plain conditions which are imposed on man by his environments. Let him who lives in the fecund valley till the soil and gather a hundred fold. Let him who inhabits the rocky upland, by river-side or bed of pent-up coal, devote his energies to manufacture. Let each procure from the other by exchange the necessities and conveniences of life which he could not himself produce but at great disadvantage, and an irrational and needless expenditure of toil. The theory continues thus : Let the producer of raw material send it near or far to the manufacturer, and receive in turn the fabric which he must wear, even the food wherewith he must sustain his life. Why should he do otherwise? Why should either the man or the community struggle against the conditions of nature, and the immutable laws of industry, to produce the entire supply of things necessary for human comfort, convenience and welfare? It is intended that men should live together in amity ; that they should mutually depend one upon the other ; that each should gain from the other's genius and exertion what he is unable to procure by his own endeavor and skill. Neighbors should be at peace. Different communities should not quarrel ; should not put interdicts and checks upon the natural laws of intercourse and mutual dependency. Nations should not fight. The harmonious order of civilization requires a world-wide exchange of products. Men are happier and richer, and nations are more powerful, when they give themselves freely to the laws of their environments, and toil in those fields of industry to which both their own dispositions and the benevolent finger of nature point the way.

The theory continues : All contrivances of human law which controvert or oppose these fundamental conditions of legitimate industry are false in principle and pernicious in application. If civil society assumes to direct the industries of her people against the plain indications of nature, then society becomes a tyrant. The rule of action in such case is no longer free but despotic. All laws which tend to divert the industries of a nation from those pursuits which are indicated by the natural surroundings are hurtful, selfish, self-destructive, and, in the long run, weakening and degrading to the people. A tariff duty so laid as to build up one industry at the expense of another is a piece of barbarous intermeddling with both the principles of common sense and the inherent rights of man. If free trade makes one nation dependent on another, then it also makes that other nation dependent on the first. The one can no more afford to fight the other than the other can afford to fight it. Hence, free trade is the great economic law among the nations. It is both sound in theory and beneficial in application. Hence, a tariff for revenue only is the true principle of national action. It is the bottom economic policy of government relative to the interests of the people. Such is the general theory to which has been given the name of *Laissez faire*, but which is known among the English-speaking peoples by the more limited term Free Trade.

THE ARGUMENT FOR PROTECTION.

The first remove from the doctrines above set forth is that of Incidental Protection. The primary assumptions of this theory are more nearly identical with those of free trade than is commonly supposed. Nearly all of the propositions advanced by the free-trader are accepted as correct by the incidental protectionist. The latter, however, holds some peculiar doctrines of his own. He claims that men, as the doctrine of *Laissez faire* teaches, should labor according to the indications of nature, and that every attempt on the part of

government to divert the industries of the people from one channel to another is contrary to right, reason and sound policy. But he also holds that since a tariff is the common means adopted by most of the civilized States of the world to produce the revenue whereby the expenses of government are met and sustained, the same should be so levied as to be *incidentally favorable* to those industries of the people which are placed at a natural disadvantage. He does not hold that any tariff should be levied with the intention of protecting and fostering a given industry, but that in every case the tax should be laid for public purposes only ; that is, with the intention of sustaining the State, and be only incidentally directed to the protection of the weaker industry.

These last assumptions furnish the ground of political divergence between free-traders proper and incidental protectionists. The latter take into consideration both the fundamental conditions of the argument and the peculiar character of the industries of the people. They claim that given pursuits may thus be strengthened and encouraged by legislative provisions, and that natural and political laws may be made to co-operate in varying and increasing the productive resources of the State.

The third general view relative to this question is known as the doctrine of Limited Protection. The word "limited," in the definition, has respect to a time relation. The fundamental difference between this theory and the preceding is this : The incidental protectionist denies, and the limited protectionist affirms, the wisdom of levying tariff duties with *the intention and purpose* of protecting home industries. The limited protectionist would have the legislation of the State take particular cognizance of the character and variety of the industries of the people, and would have the laws enacted with constant reference to the encouragement of the weaker—generally the manufacturing—pursuits. The doctrine of incidental protection would stop short of this ; would adopt the theory of "let alone," so far as the original purpose of legislation is concerned ; but would, at the same time, so shape the tariff that a needed stimulus would be given to certain industries. The limited protectionist agrees with the free-trader in certain assumptions. The former, as well as the latter, assents to the proposition that the original condition of industry is found in nature—in the environment of the laborer. But he also urges that the necessity for a varied industry is so great, so important, to the welfare and independence of a people, as to justify the deflection of human energy by law to certain pursuits, which could not be profitably followed but for the fact of protection.

This principle the limited protectionist gives as a reason for the tariff legislation, which he advocates. He would make the weaker industry live and thrive by the side of the stronger. He would modify the crude rules of nature by the higher rules of human reason. He would not only adapt man to his environment, but would adapt the environment to him. He would keep in view the strength, the dignity, the independence, of the State, and would be willing to incur temporary disadvantages for the sake of permanent good. In the course of time, when, under the stimulus of a protective system, the industries of the State have become sufficiently varied and sufficiently harmonized with original conditions, he would allow the system of protective duties to expire, and freedom of trade to supervene. But until that time he would insist that the weaker, but not less essential, industries of a people should be encouraged and fostered by law. He would deny the justice or economy of that system which, in a new country, boundless in natural resources, but poor in capital, would constrain the people to bend themselves to the production of a few great staples, the manufacture of which, by foreign nations, would make them rich and leave the original producers in perpetual vassalage and poverty.

The fourth general view is embodied in the theory of High Protection. In this the doctrine is boldly advanced that the bottom assumptions of free trade are specious and false. The influence of man upon his environment is so great as to make it virtually whatever the law of right reason would suggest. The suggestion of right reason is this: Every nation should be independent. Its complete sovereignty and equality should be secured by every means short of injustice. In order that a State may be independent and be able to mark out for itself a great destiny, its industries must afford employment for all the talents and faculties of man and yield products adapted to all his wants. To devote the energies of a people to those industries *only* which are suggested by the situation and environment is to make man a slave to nature instead of nature's master. It may be sound reasoning for the people inhabiting a fertile valley to devote themselves principally to agricultural pursuits; but to do this to the exclusion of other industries is merely to narrow the energies of the race, make dependent the laborer and finally exhaust those very powers of nature which for the present seem to suggest one pursuit and forbid all others.

The theory of high protection continues thus: It is the duty of society to build up many industries in every locality, whatever may be the environment. If nature furnishes no suggestion of blast-furnaces and iron-works, then nature must be constrained by means of human law. The production of manufactured values should be so encouraged by tariff duties as to become profitable in *all* situations. Not only should every State, but every community and every man be made comparatively independent. Every community should be able by its own industry to supply at least the larger part of its own wants. The spindle should be *made* to turn; the forge *made* to glow; the mill-wheel *made* to turn; the engine *made* to pant; the towering furnace *made* to fling up into the darkness of midnight its volcanic glare—all this whether nature has or has not prepared the antecedents of such activity. And this cannot be accomplished, or at least not well accomplished, in any other way than by legal protection of those industries which do not flourish under the action of merely natural law. It is, in brief, the theory of the high protectionist that every community of men, by means of its own varied and independent activities, fostered and encouraged by the protective system of industries, should become in the body politic what the ganglion is in the nerve system of man—an independent, local power, capable of originating its own action and directing its own energies.

THE PROHIBITORY TARIFF.

There is still a fifth position sometimes assumed by publicists and acted on by nations. This is the doctrine and practice of Prohibitory Tariffs. The idea here is that the mutual interdependence of nations is on the whole mutually disadvantageous, and that each should be rendered wholly independent of the other. Some of the oldest peoples of the world have adopted this doctrine and policy. The Oriental nations as a rule have until recent times followed persistently the exclusive theory in their national affairs. The principle is that if in any State or nation certain industrial conditions and powers are wanting, then those powers and conditions should be produced by means of law. Internal trade is, according to this doctrine, the principal thing and commercial intercourse with foreign States a matter of secondary or even dubious advantage. If the price of the given home product be not sufficient to stimulate its production in such quantities as to meet all the requirements of the market, then that price should be raised by means of legislation and raised again and again, until the foreign trade shall cease and home manufacture be supplied in its place.

True, there are not many of the modern peoples who now carry the doctrine of protection to this extreme. But it is also true that in the attempt to prepare protective schedules

under the system of limited or high protection, it has not infrequently happened that the tariff has been fixed at such a scale as *to act* as a prohibitory duty and turn aside entirely foreign commerce in the article on which the tariff is laid.

Such, then, are the fundamental principles which underlie the great controversy and furnish the issues of political divergence in the United States. The question is as old as the beginnings of civil progress in the New World. No sooner was the present governmental system in our country instituted than the controversy broke out in the halls of legislation. Hamilton as first Secretary of the Treasury took the question up and adopted the policy of limited protection as that of the Federal party. He advocated this policy most ably in the papers which he sent at intervals from the Department of the Treasury. On his recommendation the second statute ever enacted by Congress under the Constitution was prepared and passed for the purpose of "*providing a revenue and affording protection to American industry.*" The very necessities which gave rise to the Constitution were those relating to commerce and interwoven with the tariff. From the beginning the question would not down. During the fourth and fifth decades of the century the leading political agitations, that is, those that were real, were produced by the revival of the tariff issue in our system. During the ascendancy of Henry Clay his "American system" became for a season the bottom principle of Whig politics.

In the ante-bellum epoch the Whig party continued to favor the protective system, while the Democratic party espoused free trade. After the Civil War the question slumbered for a season. Men forgot its import, and reckoned not that it would ever arise again to trouble party discipline. In 1880 a paragraph in the national Democratic platform was inserted—not indeed with the intention of evoking an old controversy from oblivion—which, by declaring in favor of a tariff for revenue only, unexpectedly precipitated the whole issue anew, and contributed to, perhaps determined, the defeat of the Democratic ticket. Even in those States where Democracy was in the ascendant the growth of great manufacturing establishments had brought in a vast army of artisans, who in spite of all party affiliation refused to support a platform which, according to their belief, was calculated to impair, if not destroy, the very business in which they were engaged.

PARTIES DIVIDED AMONG THEMSELVES ON THE QUESTION.

In the ensuing quadrennium both Democrats and Republicans made strenuous efforts to align their party followers on this question, but neither was successful. The event showed that the Democrats were by no means unanimous for free trade, and that the Republicans were far from unanimity in their support of protection. Large numbers of Republican leaders whose financial interests lay in the direction of agricultural production or of commerce rather than in the line of manufactures espoused the doctrine of free trade. Never was party discipline more strained on any subject than in the presidential campaigns from 1876 to 1888. Especially during the administration of Arthur and his successor did the tariff question gather head, and the white crests of conflicting tides were seen along the whole surface of political controversy. Nor may the publicist and historian of the passing age clearly foresee the solution of the problem. One thing may be safely predicted, that the question in America will be decided, as it has already been decided in Great Britain, according to *self-interest*. No people will, in the long run, act against what it conceives to be its interest for the sake of supporting a given theory. When some party in power, whatever that party may be, shall become convinced that the interest of the United States requires the abolition of all protective duties and the substitution therefor of a system of

tariff for revenue only, then, and not till then, will the *Laissez faire* theory of political economy take the place of that which has thus far prevailed as the policy of our country.

Hardly, by the crime of Garfield's murder, had the presidency been transferred to Arthur before the issue of naming his successor was raised by the ever-busy swarm of politicians. To the calm-minded observer it appears a thing of wonder that the people of the United States have so far permitted themselves to be cajoled, hoodwinked, brow-beaten, converted into camp-followers and slaves, by the ignorant horde of interested adventurers who have arrogated to themselves the right of civil and political control over the destiny of the American Republic. It can hardly be wondered that under the continuance of such a system a spirit of political pessimism has gained ground to the very verge of prevalence in the United States. Of a certainty the party newspaper has been and continues to be the abettor and agent of Kakistocracy in America. And until the reign of that evangel of evil is ended the people of the United States must continue to beat about blindly, moping and groaning under the despotism of the bad.

The year 1882 hardly furnished breathing time for the subsidence of political passion. The great army of the interested went forth to arouse the country for another contest. In this haste might be seen the symptoms of fear; for it could not be doubted that both political organizations had become alarmed lest through the failure of living issues the old combinations which had divided the country for a quarter of a century should go to pieces and leave the field to the people. But the time had not yet come for the breaking up of the political deeps, and the masses were still made to believe that the old questions were vital to the welfare of the country.

PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN OF 1884.

The political parties made ready for the work before them. Early in 1884 Chicago was selected as the place of both the national conventions. The Greenback-Labor party held its convention at Indianapolis in the month of April, and nominated General Butler for the Presidency, with A. M. West, of Mississippi, for the Vice-Presidency. The Republican convention met on the 3d of May, and after a spirited session of three days' duration, nominated James G. Blaine, of Maine, and General John A. Logan, of Illinois. The Democratic delegates assembled on the 9th of July and on the 11th completed their work by nominating Grover Cleveland, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. The nominations were received with considerable enthusiasm by the respective party followings, but large factions in each party refused to support the national tickets.

With the progress of the campaign it became evident that the result must depend on the electoral votes of New York and Indiana. The preliminary counting showed the latter State for the Democrats. New York thus became the single battle-field, and there the respective parties concentrated their forces. The event proved favorable to the Democrats, though their majority in the popular vote of New York was only 1142. This small preponderance determined the result. The vote of the Empire State went to



JOHN A. LOGAN.

Cleveland and Hendricks, assuring to them 219 ballots in the electoral college against 182 votes for Blaine and Logan.

The sequel of the presidential election of this year was less happy than generally happens under like circumstances. The Republican party had been in power continuously for twenty-four years. During that time great and salutary changes had taken place in the social condition and civil polity of the American people. It was natural that the Republican leaders should claim the result as their work, when as a matter of fact it was simply the evolution of the age. The great men of that party were honest in claiming that the tremendous and beneficial changes which had passed like the shadows of great clouds over the American landscape were attributable to the long period of Republican ascendancy. To lose power, therefore, was political bitterness itself. It was only by degrees that this feeling subsided, and that the office-holders near the close of Arthur's administration began to trim their sails with the evident hope that the breezes of civil service reform, to which the President-elect was pledged, might waft them somewhat further on the high seas of emolument.

DEDICATION OF THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

The recurrence of the birthday of Washington, 1885, was noted for the dedication of the great monument which had been building for so many years at the Capital. The erection of such a structure had been suggested as early as 1799. Nor could it well be doubted that the American people would, in due time, rear some appropriate memorial to the Father of his Country. The work was not undertaken, however, until 1835. In that year an organization was effected to promote the enterprise. But for a long time after the beginning, the work of building lagged, and it was not until Congress, taunted at last into action by the animadversions of the press and people, undertook the prosecution of the enterprise that it was brought to completion.

The cost of the Washington Monument was about \$1,500,000. It stands on the left bank of the Potomac, in the southern outskirts of Washington City. The structure was, at the time of its erection, the highest in the world. The shaft proper, without reckoning the foundation, is 555 feet in height, being thirty feet higher than the Cathedral at Cologne, and seventy-five feet higher than the pyramid of Cheops in its present condition. The great obelisk is composed of more than eighteen thousand blocks of stone. They are mostly of white marble, and weigh several tons each. One hundred and eighty-one memorial stones, contributed by the different States of the Union and by friendly foreign nations, are set at various places in the structure.

The dedication of the monument occurred on Saturday, the 21st of February. The ceremonies were of the most imposing character. A procession of more than six thousand persons marched from the base of the monument, along Pennsylvania Avenue to the Capitol, while salutes were fired from the batteries of the navy yard. At the Capitol the procession was reviewed by the President of the United States. The concluding ceremonies were held in the House of Representatives, where a great throng of distinguished people had assembled—not so much to do honor to the occasion as to be honored by it. The principal oration, written by Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, as well as the less formal addresses of the day, was well worthy of the event, and calculated to add—if aught could add—to the fame of him who was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellows citizens."

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE DEMOCRATIC RESTORATION.



ROVER CLEVELAND, twenty-second President of the United States, was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, March 18, 1837. Three years afterwards he was taken by his father and mother to Fayetteville, near Syracuse, New York. Here, in his boyhood, he received such limited education as the schools of the place afforded. For a while in his youth he was clerk in a village store. Afterwards the family removed first to Clinton and then to Holland Patent. At the latter place his father died, and young Cleveland, left to his own resources, went to New York and became a teacher in an asylum for the blind. After a short time, however, the young man, finding such pursuits uncongenial to his tastes, went to Buffalo and engaged in the study of law. He was admitted to the bar in 1859, and, four years afterwards, began his public career as Assistant District Attorney. In 1869 he was elected Sheriff of Erie county, and in 1881 was chosen Mayor of Buffalo. His next promotion by his fellow-citizens was to the governorship of New York, to which position he was elected in 1882, by the astonishing majority of 192,854—the majority being perhaps unparalleled in the history of American elections. It was while he still held this office that, in July of 1884, he was nominated by the Democratic party for the presidency of the United States.

Much interest was manifested by the public in the constitution of the new Cabinet. On the day following the inauguration the nominations were sent to the Senate, and were as follows: For Secretary of State, Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; for Secretary of the Treasury, Daniel Manning, of New York; for Secretary of the Interior, Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi; for Secretary of War, William C. Endicott, of Massachusetts; for Secretary of the Navy, William C. Whitney, of New York; for Postmaster-General, William F. Vilas, of Wisconsin; for Attorney-General, Augustus H. Garland, of Arkansas. The peculiarity of the appointments was that two of them were from New York. But the prejudice which might arise on this account was fully counterbalanced by the high character and undoubted abilities of the men whom the President had chosen as the responsible advisers of his administration.

At the beginning of his administration the President was confronted with the irrepres-
sible question of the distribution of patronage. His party had come into power on a platform declaring for civil-service reform. Of late years the political opinion of the country had begun to turn with disgust from the gross practice of rewarding men for mere party services. In the evenly balanced presidential contests of 1880 and 1884 it became all-im-
portant to conciliate, at least by profession, the growing phalanx of civil-service reformers.

They it was to whom Cleveland owed his election; for they accepted his pledges and principles. Their views and the President's were in accord, and the new administration was launched with civil-service reform inscribed on its pennon.

The event showed, however, that the Democratic party was not equal to its pledges and not up to the President's level of principle. It was clear that the Democratic leaders had in large part upheld the banner of civil service merely as an expedient. The President's sincere attempt to enforce the principles of the party platform by an *actual* reform



GROVER CLEVELAND.

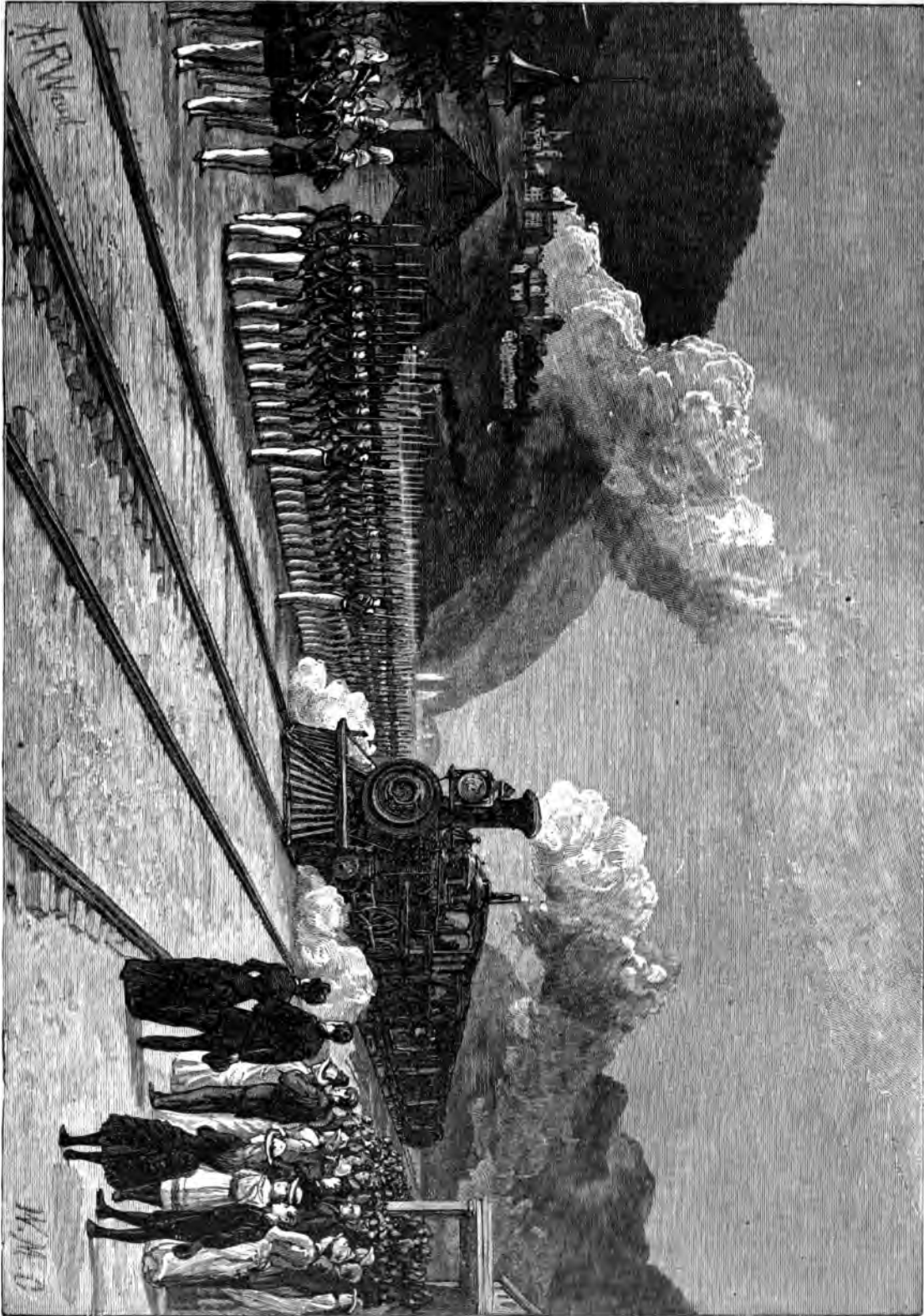
became appalling to the captain-generals of his party. To them the declaration in favor of a new and better system was purely nominal. They made a rush to gather the spoils of victory, and were astounded that the Chief Magistrate should presume to refuse them. From the outset it was a grave question whether the President would be able to stand by the flag of reform or rather be driven to readopt the cast-off system of spoils.

MEMORIAL LITERATURE OF THE WAR.

It was a peculiarity of this epoch that the deeds and memories of the Civil War revived in public interest. The circumstance was attributable perhaps to the fact that the great men of that conflict now entered the shadows of old age and became talkative about the stirring exploits of their youth and manhood. Now it was that the series of authoritative publications concerning the war for the Union, written by the leading participants, began to appear. This work, so important to a true knowledge of the great struggle for and against the Union, was begun by General William T. Sherman, who in 1875 published his *Memoirs* narrating the story of that part of the war in which he had been a leader. This publication had indeed been preceded by some years by that of Alexander H. Stephens, late Vice-president of the Confederacy, who in 1870 completed his two volumes entitled *The War between the States*. In 1884 General Grant began the publication, in the *Century Magazine*, of a series of war articles which attracted universal attention, and which led to the preparation and issuance of his *Memoirs* in 1885-6. Similar contributions by many other eminent commanders of the Union and Confederate armies followed in succession, until a large literature of the Civil War was left on record for the instruction of after times.

DEATH OF GENERAL GRANT.

The interest in these publications was heightened by the death within a limited period of a large number of the great generals who had led armies in the war for the Union. It was early in the summer of 1885 that the attention of the people was called away from public affairs by the announcement that the veteran General Ulysses S. Grant had been stricken with a fatal malady; that his days would be few among the living. The hero of Vicksburg and Appomattox sank under the ravages of a malignant cancer which had fixed itself in his throat, and on the 23d of July he died quietly at a summer cottage on Mount McGregor, New York. For some months the silent hero, who had commanded the combined armies of the United States had been engaged in the pathetic work of bringing to completion his two volumes of *Memoirs*, from the sale of which—such is the gratitude of



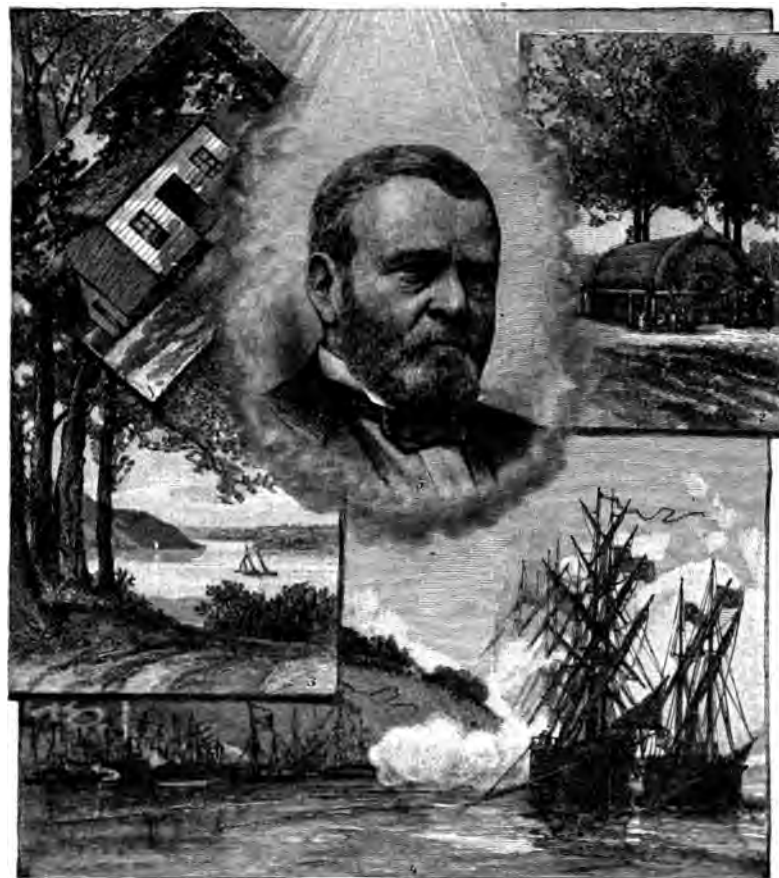
THE FUNERAL TRAIN BRACING GENERAL GRANT'S BODY PASSING WEST POINT. .

republics—the resources of his family must be chiefly drawn. It was a race, with death for the goal. Scarcely had the enfeebled general laid down his pencil until the enemy knocked at the door.

The last days of Grant were hallowed by the sympathies of the nation which he had so gloriously defended. The news of his death passed over the land like the shadow of a great cloud. Almost every city and hamlet showed in some appropriate way its emblems of grief. The funeral ceremonies equalled, if they did not surpass, any which have ever been

witnessed. The procession in New York City was perhaps the most solemn, elaborate, and imposing pageant ever exhibited in honor of the dead, at least since the funeral of the Duke of Wellington. On August 8th, 1885, the body of General Grant was laid to rest in Riverside Park, overlooking the Hudson. There, on a summit from which may be seen the great river and the metropolis of the nation, is the tomb of him whose courage and magnanimity in war will forever give him rank with the few master spirits who, by their heroic deeds, have honored the human race, and by their genius have changed somewhat the course of history.

The enterprise of rearing a suitable monument to General Grant was delayed by untoward circumstances. The General had himself designated Riverside Park



1. BIRTHPLACE OF GENERAL GRANT. 2. HIS TOMB IN RIVERSIDE PARK, NEW YORK CITY. 3. VIEW FROM RIVERSIDE PARK, LOOKING NORTH. 4. FLEET FIRING SALUTE IN THE HUDSON RIVER ON THE DAY OF HIS FUNERAL.

as his last resting-place. Soon after his death a Monument Commission was organized in New York City, and subscriptions taken, but the work lagged. The question of removing his remains to Washington City was once and again agitated. At length, however, the Commission was reorganized, with General Horace Porter as chairman. From that time the enterprise was pressed, and on the 27th day of April, 1892, the corner-stone of what is destined to be the most elaborate and artistic mausoleum in the New World was laid. The oration of the occasion was delivered by Hon. Chauncey M. Depew, of New York.

OTHER DISTINGUISHED DEAD.

The death of General Grant was quickly followed by that of another distinguished Union commander. On the 29th of October, 1885, General George B. McClellan,

organizer of the Army of the Potomac, at one time general-in-chief, subsequently Democratic candidate for the presidency, and at a later period governor of New Jersey, died at his home in St. Cloud, in that State. The conspicuous part borne by him during the first two years of the war, his eminent abilities as a soldier and civilian, his unblemished character as a citizen, heightened the popular estimate of his life, and evoked the sincerest expressions of national sorrow for his death.*

The next great Union commander to pass away was General Winfield S. Hancock. This brave and generous officer was at the time of his death senior major-general of the American army. Always a favorite with the people and the soldiers, he had, since the close of the war, occupied a conspicuous place before the public. In 1880 he was the Democratic candidate for the presidency, and, though defeated by General Garfield, the defeat was without dishonor. His death, which occurred at his home on Governor's Island on the 9th of February, 1886, was universally deplored, and the people omitted no mark of respect for the memory of him who, in the great struggle for the preservation of the Union, had won the title of "Hero of Gettysburg." Thus have passed away the gallant generals of the Army of the Potomac. George B. McClellan, Ambrose E. Burnside, Joseph Hooker, George G. Meade, and Winfield S. Hancock have, one by one, joined

"The innumerable caravan that moves
To that mysterious realm, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of Death."

In 1886 General John A. Logan, Senator of the United States from Illinois, sickened and died at his home called Calumet Place, in Washington City. His career had been distinguished in the highest degree. At the outbreak of the civil war few men did more than Logan to strengthen the Union sentiment in the wavering Border States. Resigning his seat in Congress, he joined the first advance, and fought as a private at Bull Run. Without previous military training, he rose rapidly to distinction, and became *par excellence* the volunteer general in the war for the Union. He returned to political life, and was chosen to the United States Senate. He remained at his post until his death, passing away with unmistakable evidences of the enduring place which he had won in the affections of the American people.

Meanwhile a distinguished civilian had fallen from high office. On November 25th, 1885, Vice-president Thomas A. Hendricks, after an illness of but a single day, died suddenly at his home in Indianapolis. Not a moment's warning was given of the approach of the fatal paralysis. The life of Hendricks had been one of singular purity, and the amenities of his character had been conspicuous in the stormy arena of American politics. The body of



GRANT'S TOMB IN RIVERSIDE PARK.

* The posthumous publication of McClellan's *Own Story*, under the auspices of his bereaved wife, is on the whole to be regretted. As a contribution to the military and civil history of the time, the work is valuable; but to McClellan's memory the book is damaging. In a few matters the civilians in authority over McClellan (but not Lincoln) are put on the defensive; but, taken altogether, the apology mars the General's fame.

the dead statesman was buried in Crown Hill Cemetery, near Indianapolis, the funeral pageant surpassing in grandeur and solemnity any other display of the kind ever witnessed in the Western States, except the funeral of Lincoln.

The next distinguished citizen to pass away was Horatio Seymour, of New York. On the 12th of February, 1886, this noted leader and politician, who had been governor of the Empire State, and Democratic candidate for the presidency against General Grant, died at his home in Utica. He had reached the age of seventy-six, and though living in retirement, never ceased to hold a large share of the attention of his fellow-citizens.

Much more eminent than he, however, was Samuel J. Tilden, who died at his home called Greystone, at Yonkers, near New York City, on the 4th of August, 1886. Tilden had lived to make a marked impression on the political thought of the epoch. His intellect was of the highest order, and his attainments unquestionable. At the time of his death he was in the seventy-third year of his age. For forty years he had been a prominent figure in his own State and before the nation. In 1870-71 he was among the foremost in unearthing the astounding frauds and robberies which had been perpetrated on the city treasury of New York. In the following year he was sent to the General Assembly, where his services were invaluable. In 1874 he was elected governor of New York by a majority of more than fifty thousand votes.

In the executive office Tilden was one of the ablest men who ever occupied the gubernatorial chair of the State. In 1876 he came marvellously near reaching the presidency. The popular vote was largely in his favor, and the majority in the electoral college was lost through the superior tactics of the leaders of the party in power. Neither Tilden nor Hayes was clearly elected, the Democrats having carried two or three States with the shot-gun, and the Republicans, by the aid of the Electoral Commission, having "counted in" one or two States which they did not carry at all. Tilden in private life continued to guide the counsels of his party. In 1880 he would have been re-nominated but for the enfeebled condition of his health. One of his ablest—as it was his last—public paper, was a general letter on "The Coast and Harbor Defences of the United States," a publication which led to the legislation of the Forty-ninth Congress on that important subject.

DEATH OF BEECHER AND CHIEF JUSTICE WAITE.

To this mortuary list of military heroes and great civilians must be added the illustrious name of Henry Ward Beecher. To him, with little reservation, we may assign the first place among our orators and philanthropists. Nor is it likely that his equal in most of the sublime qualities of energy and manhood will soon be seen again on the stage of life. His personality was so large, so unique and striking, as to constitute the man in some sense *sui generis*. His kind is rare in the world, and the circumstances which aided in his development have passed away. That fact in American history—the institution of slavery—which brought out and displayed the higher moods of his anger and stormy eloquence, cannot again arouse the indignation of genius. The knight and his dangerous foil sleep together in the dust.

Mr. Beecher had the happy fortune to retain his faculties unimpaired to the very close of his career. On the evening of the 5th of March, 1887, at his home in Brooklyn, surrounded by his family, without premonition or portent, the message came by apoplexy. An artery broke in that magnificent heavy brain that had been for more than forty years one of the greatest batteries of thought and action in the world; and the aged orator, nearing the close of his seventy-fourth year, sank into that deep sleep from which no

power on earth could wake him. He lived until the morning of the 8th, and quietly entered the shadows. The sentiments awakened by his death, the circumstances of his sepulture, and the common eulogium of mankind, proved beyond doubt the supreme place which he had occupied in the admiring esteem, not only of his countrymen, but of all the great peoples of the world.

In order of occurrence the next two deaths of men of national reputation were those of Chief Justice Morrison R. Waite, of the Supreme Court of the United States, and ex-Senator Roscoe Conkling, of New York. The former died at his home in Washington City on the 23d of March, 1888. The Chief Justice was a native of Lyme, Connecticut; born on the 29th of November, 1816. His education was first of the public school and afterwards of Yale College, from which he was graduated in 1837. He became a student of law, removed to Ohio, and practiced his profession at Maumee City. In 1849 he entered public life, serving in the legislature of the State. He then made his home at Toledo, where he remained in the practice of his profession until he was called by General Grant to sit at the head of the Supreme Bench of the United States. Meanwhile he had served as a member of the Board of Arbitration sitting at Geneva for the adjudication of the Alabama claims. He brought to the office of Chief Justice a character, talents and attainment equal to the responsibilities of the position. The death of Waite may well suggest a brief notice of that Great Court over which he presided during the last fourteen years of his life.

SKETCH OF THE SUPREME COURT.

In the formation of the Constitution of the United States, it was intended that the three General Departments of the government should be of correlative rank and influence. The sequel, however, as developed in the actual working of our National system, has shown that the Executive and Legislative departments predominate, naturally—perhaps inevitably—over the judicial branch, and that, in the popular estimate at least, the Supreme Court is of small importance as compared with the presidency and the two Houses of Congress.

This disesteem of the judiciary is not verified by a broader and more philosophical view on the subject. The importance, especially, of the conservative opinion of our great National Court in determining, at least negatively, the final validity of all legislation and all subordinate judicial decisions, can hardly be overestimated. The same may be said of the Supreme Bench considered as the only immovable breakwater against the unscrupulous and rampant spirit of party. It is fortunate that the offices of our Chief Justice and of the Associate Justices are *appointive*, and are thus removed, in great measure, from the perfidy of the convention and the passion of a partisan election.

It may be of interest to glance for a moment at some of the vicissitudes through which the Supreme Court has passed since its organization in 1789. The Court was then instituted by the appointment of John Jay as Chief Justice, who held the office until 1796, when he gave place to Oliver Ellsworth. The latter remained in office until, in 1800, the infirmities of age compelled his resignation. Then came the long and honorable ascendancy



HENRY WARD BEECHER..

of Chief Justice John Marshall, who presided over the Court from his appointment in 1801 to his death in 1835. This was the Golden Age of the American Supreme Court. From 1835 to 1837 there was an interregnum in the Chief Justiceship, occasioned by the disagreement of President Jackson and the Senate of the United States. But in the latter year the President secured the confirmation of Judge Roger B. Taney as Chief Justice, who entered upon his long term of twenty-seven years. It was his celebrated decision in case of the negro Dred Scott, relative to the status of the slave-race in America, that applied the torch to that immense heap of combustibles whose explosion was the Civil War.

After the death of Chief Justice Taney, in 1864, President Lincoln appointed, as his successor, Salmon P. Chase, recently Secretary of the Treasury, and author of most of the financial measures and expedients by which the National credit had been buoyed up and preserved during the Rebellion. His official term extended to his death, in 1873, and covered the period when the important issues arising from the Civil War were under adjudication. To Chief Justice Chase fell also, by virtue of his office, the duty of presiding at the impeachment of President Andrew Johnson. In 1874 the appointment of Morrison R. Waite as Chief Justice was made by President Grant.

The death of Chief Justice Waite made way for the return to the supreme judicial office in the United States of some member of the political party which had long been out of power. Since the epoch of the Civil War the court had been filled almost exclusively with judges who, by political affiliation, belonged to the Republican party. The first distinctly Democratic appointment which was made in the last quarter of a century was the recent one of Judge Lucius Q. C. Lamar, who, by the nomination of President Cleveland, was transferred from the Secretaryship of the Interior to the Supreme Bench. It thus happened, in the vicissitude of things, that the two political theories which were opposed to each other in the War for the Union, and are still opposed by party name, became confluent in the High Court of the Nation. This circumstance was to some a source of alarm and prejudice; but the fear was not well founded. Partisan dispositions are less potent and dangerous—if, indeed, they assert themselves at all—on the Supreme Bench of the United States. Thus far in its history the Court has, as a rule, been as pure in its administration and methods as it has been great in reputation. The muddy waters of party conflict have only occasionally reached as high as the chambers of our honored tribunal; and the fear that it may be otherwise hereafter may hopefully be put aside as a groundless and spectral chimera of the hour. On May 1st, 1888, the President appointed Judge Melville W. Fuller, of Chicago, to the vacant Chief Justiceship.

ROSCOE CONKLING, THE GREAT LEADER.

The impression produced by the death of Chief Justice Waite had scarcely passed when the decease of another citizen, most noted for high character and great talents, called the public attention to the rapid disappearance of the Nation's most distinguished representatives. On the 18th of April, at the Hoffman House, New York City, Honorable Roscoe Conkling, ex-Senator of the United States, died after a brief and painful illness. A local inflammation, resulting in the formation of a pus-sack under the mastoid bone of the skull, led to the cutting of the skull in hope of saving Mr. Conkling's life; but he succumbed to the fatal malady and the shock of the operation.

Roscoe Conkling was born in Albany, New York, on the 30th of October, 1829. After the completion of an academic course of study, he went as a student of law to Utica, in 1846. On reaching his majority he was admitted to the bar, and was soon afterward

appointed to the office of County Attorney. From the beginning of his career his great talents and remarkable force of character were manifest. He made a profound impression, first upon the local, and then upon the general society of New York. In 1858 he was mayor of Utica, and in the same year was sent to the National House of Representatives. He had already become an able politician, and was soon recognized as the leader of the Republican party in his native State. His rise was rapid, and his influence became marked in the affairs of the government. He served for six years in the Lower House, and in 1866 was elected to the Senate. In that body he aspired to leadership, and gradually attained it, though not without many struggles and contests with the great men of the epoch. He was twice reëlected Senator—in 1872 and 1878; but in the third term, namely, in 1881, he found himself in such relations with the Garfield Administration as induced him to resign his seat. This step was regarded by many as the mistake of his political life. At any rate he failed of a reëlection, the Administration party getting control of the Legislature of New York, and sending another in his place. After this, Mr. Conkling retired to private life, and took up with great success the practice of his profession in New York City.

Roscoe Conkling was a man of the highest courage and stanchest convictions. He never shone to greater advantage than when leading the forces of General Grant in the Chicago Convention of 1880. He was a born political general. His will and persistency and pride gave him a power which, if it had been tempered with greater urbanity, could hardly have failed to crown his life with the highest honors of the Nation. His talents rose to the region of genius, and his presence was magnificent—an inspiration to his friends, a terror to his enemies. As a summary of the results of his career, it may be said that, at the time of his death, none except his eminent rival, Mr. Blaine, might successfully contest with him the proud rank of the most distinguished private citizen of the United States.

Meanwhile, in the spring of 1886 had occurred one of the most serious labor agitations which had ever been witnessed in the United States. It were difficult to present an adequate statement of the causes, general and special, which produced these alarming troubles. Not until after the close of the Civil War did there appear the first symptoms of a renewal, in the New World, of the struggle which has been going on for so long a time in Europe between the laboring classes and the capitalists. It had been hoped that such a conflict would never be renewed in the countries west of the Atlantic. Such a hope, however, was doomed to disappointment. The first well-marked symptoms of the appearance of serious labor strikes and insurrections occurred as early as 1867. The origin of these difficulties was in the coal and iron producing regions of Pennsylvania and in some of the great manufactories of New England. For a while the disturbances produced but little alarm. It was not until the great railroad strike of 1877 that a general apprehension was excited with respect to the unfriendly relations of labor and capital. In the following year much uneasiness existed; but the better times, extending from 1879 to 1882, with the consequent favorable rate of wages, tended to remove, or at least to postpone, the renewal of trouble.

THE ORGANIZATION OF LABOR.

A series of bad crops ensued, and the average ability of the people to purchase was correspondingly diminished. The speculative mania, however, did not cease, and the large amounts of capital withdrawn from legitimate production and lost in visionary enterprises, still further reduced the means of employing labor. Stagnation ensued in business; stocks declined in value, manufactories were closed, and the difficulty of obtaining employment was greatly increased.

While these causes—half-natural, half-artificial—were at work, others, wholly fictitious, but powerful in their evil results, began to operate in the creation of strife and animosity. Monopolies grew and flourished to an extent hitherto unknown in the United States. On the other hand, labor discovered the salutary but dangerous power of combination. A rage for organizing took possession of the minds of the laboring men of the country, and to the arrogant face of monopoly was opposed the insurrectionary front of the working classes.

More serious still than the causes here referred to was the introduction into the United States of a large mass of ignorant foreign labor. The worst elements of several European States contributed freely to the manufactories and workshops of America, and a class of ideas utterly un-American became dominant in many of the leading establishments of the country. Communistic theories of society and Anarchistic views of government began to clash with the more sober republican opinions and practices of the people. To all this must be added the evils and abuses which seem to be incident to the wage-system of labor, and are, perhaps, inseparable therefrom. The result has been a growing jealousy of the two great parties to production, the laborer and the capitalist.

The opening of trade for the season of 1886 witnessed a series of strikes and labor imbroglios in all parts of the country. Such troubles were, however, confined for the most part to the cities and towns where labor was aggregated. The first serious trouble occurred on what is known as the Gould System of railways, reaching from the Mississippi to the Southwest. A single workman, belonging to the Knights of Labor, and employed on a branch of the Texas and Pacific Railway, at that time under a receivership, and therefore beyond the control of Jay Gould and his subordinates, was discharged from his place. This action was resented by the Knights, and the laborers on a great part of the Gould System were ordered to strike. The movement was, for a season, successful, and the transportation of freights from St. Louis to the Southwest ceased. Gradually, however, other workmen were substituted for the striking Knights; the movement of freights was resumed, and the strike ended in a comparative failure; but this end was not reached until a severe riot in East St. Louis had occasioned the sacrifice of several innocent lives.

ANARCHY IN CHICAGO.

Far more alarming was the outbreak in Chicago. In that city the Socialistic and Anarchistic elements were sufficiently powerful to present a bold front to the authorities. Processions bearing red flags and banners with Communistic devices and mottoes, frequently paraded the streets, and were addressed by demagogues who avowed themselves the open enemies of society and the existing order. On the 4th of May, 1886, a vast crowd of this reckless material collected in a place called the Haymarket, and were about to begin the usual inflammatory proceedings, when a band of policemen, mostly officers, drew near, with the evident purpose of controlling or dispersing the meeting.

A terrible scene ensued. Dynamite bombs were thrown from the crowd and exploded among the officers, several of whom were blown to pieces and others shockingly mangled. The mob was, in turn, attacked by the police, and many of the insurgents were shot down. Order was presently restored in the city; several of the leading Anarchists were arrested, brought to trial, condemned, and executed on the charge of inciting to murder. Many precautionary measures were also taken to prevent the recurrence of such tragedies as had been witnessed in the Haymarket Square. On the following day a similar, though less dangerous outbreak occurred in Milwaukee; but in this city the insurrectionary movement was suppressed without serious loss of life. The attention of the American people—let us hope

to some good end—was recalled, as never before, to the dangerous relations existing between the upper and nether sides of our municipal populations.

THE CHARLESTON EARTHQUAKE.

The summer of 1886 was memorable in American annals, on account of that great natural phenomenon known as the Charleston Earthquake. On the night of the 31st of August, at ten minutes before ten o'clock, it was discovered at Washington City, and at several other points where weather and signal stations were established, that communication with Charleston, South Carolina, was suddenly cut off. The discovery was made by inquiries relative to the origin of a shock which had that moment been felt, with varying degrees of violence, throughout nearly the whole country east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes. In a few minutes it was found that no telegraphic communication from any side could be had with Charleston, and it was at once perceived that that city had suffered from the convulsion. Measures were hastily devised for further investigation, and the result showed that the worst apprehensions were verified. Without a moment's warning the city had been rocked and rent to its very foundations. Hardly a building in the limits of Charleston, or in the country surrounding, had escaped serious injury, and perhaps one-half of all were in a state of semi-wreck or total ruin. With the exception of the great earthquake of New Madrid, in 1811, no other such scene of devastation and terror had ever been witnessed within the limits of the United States.

Many scientists of national reputation hurried to the scene, and made a careful scrutiny of the phenomena, with a view of contributing something to the exact knowledge of mankind respecting the causes and character of earthquakes. A few facts and principles were determined with tolerable accuracy. One was, that the point of origin, called the *epicentre*, of the great convulsion had been at a place about twenty miles from Charleston, and that the motion of the earth immediately over this centre had been nearly up and down—that is, vertical. A second point, tolerably well established, was that the isoseismic lines, or lines of equal disturbance, might be drawn around the epicentre in circles very nearly concentric, and that the circle of greatest disturbance was at some distance from the centre. Still a third item of knowledge tolerably well established was that away from the epicentre—as illustrated in the ruins of Charleston—the agitation of the earth was not in the nature of a single shock or convulsion, as a dropping or sliding of the region to one side, but rather a series of very quick and violent oscillations, by which the central country of the disturbance was, in the course of some five minutes, settled somewhat to seaward.

The whole coast in the central region of the shock was modified with respect to the sea, and the ocean itself was thrown into turmoil for leagues from the shore. The people of the city were in a state of the utmost consternation. They fled from their falling houses to the public squares and parks and far into the country. Afraid to return into the ruins they threw up tents and light booths for protection, and abode for weeks away from their homes.

The disaster to Charleston served to bring out some of the better qualities of our civilization. Assistance came from all quarters, and contributions poured in for the support and encouragement of the afflicted people. For several weeks a series of diminishing shocks continued to terrify the citizens and paralyze the efforts at restoration. But it was discovered in the course of time that these shocks were only the dying away of the great convulsion, and that they gave cause for hope of entire cessation rather than continued alarm. In the lapse of a few months the *debris* was cleared away, business was resumed, and the people were again safe in their homes.

On the 4th of March, 1887, the second session of the Forty-ninth Congress expired by statutory limitation. The work of the body had not been so fruitful of results as had been desired and anticipated by the friends of the government; but some important legislation had been effected. On the question of the tariff nothing of value was accomplished. True, a serious measure of revenue reform had been brought forward at an early date in the session, but owing to the opposition of that wing of the Democratic party headed by Samuel J. Randall, and committed to the doctrine of protection, as well as to the antagonism of the Republican majority in the Senate, the act failed of adoption. In fact, by the beginning of 1887, it had become apparent that the existing political parties could not be forced to align on the issue of free trade and tariff, and as a result no legislation looking to any actual reform in the current revenue system of the United States could be carried through Congress.

THE PENSION LIST.

On the question of extending the Pension List, however, the case was different. A great majority of both parties could always be counted on to favor such measures as looked to the increase of benefits to the soldiers. At the first only a limited number of pensions had been granted, and these only to actually disabled and injured veterans of the war for the Union. With the lapse of time, however, and the relaxation of party allegiance, it became more and more important to each of the parties to secure and hold the soldier vote, without which it was felt that neither could maintain ascendancy in the government. Nor can it be denied that genuine patriotic sentiment and gratitude of the Nation to its defenders coincided in this respect with political ambition and selfishness. The Arrears of Pensions Act, making up to those who were already recipients of pensions such amounts as would have accrued if the benefit had dated from the time of disability, instead of from the time of granting the pension, was passed in 1879, and, at the same time, the list of beneficiaries was greatly enlarged.

The measure presented in the Forty-ninth Congress was designed to extend the Pension List so as to include all regularly enlisted and honorably discharged soldiers of the Civil War, who had become, in whole or in part, dependent upon the aid of others for their maintenance and welfare. The measure was known as the Dependent Pensions Bill, and though many opposed the enactment of a law which appeared to fling away the bounty of the government to the deserving and undeserving, the evil and the just alike, yet a majority was easily obtained for the measure in both Houses, and the act was passed. President Cleveland, however, interposed his veto, and the proposed law fell to the ground. An effort was made in the House of Representatives to pass the bill over the veto, but the movement failed.

THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE BILL.

By far the most important and noted piece of legislation of the session was embodied in the act known as the Interstate Commerce Bill. For some fifteen years complaints against the methods and management of the railways of the United States had been heard on many sides, and in cases not a few the complaints had originated in actual abuses, some of which were wilful, but most were merely incidental to the development of a system so vast and, on the whole, so beneficial to the public. In such a state of affairs the lasting benefit is always forgotten in the accidental hurt. That large class of people who, in despite of the teachings of history, still believe in the cure of all things by law, and that mankind are always about to perish for want of more legislation, became clamorous in their demand that Congress should take the railways by the throat and compel them to accept what may be called the system of uniformity as it respects all charges for service rendered.

It must be borne in mind that in the very nature of things railways are unable to carry freight at as small a rate per hundred, or passengers at as small a charge per mile, between places approximate as between places at great distances. It must be remembered, also, that in some regions it is many times more expensive to build and operate a road than in others. To carry one of these great thoroughfares over the Rocky Mountains is a very different thing from stretching a similar track across the level prairies of Illinois. It must still further be considered that, in the nature of the case, competition will do its legitimate and inevitable work at an earlier date and more thoroughly between great cities, even when remotely situated, than between unimportant points, however near together. The traffic and travel between two villages is not sufficient to create competition among carriers. It is as absurd to suppose that railway tariffs can be the same between New York and Chicago as they are between two Missouri towns as it is to suppose that butter can command the same price in an Iowa village that it does in the Quincy Market of Boston. What should be said of an attempt in Congress to make the price of wheat and pork uniform throughout the United States?

The Interstate Commerce Bill was conceived against all the natural, manifest and undeniable principles of the commercial world. It was passed with the belief that all discriminations in the charges made by railways doing business in more than one State could be prevented by law. It was passed as if to amend or abrogate those natural laws of trade and traffic which, in their kind, are as absolute and beneficial as the law of gravitation. It was passed with the ulterior design of securing to its promoters the support of that ignorant and embittered race of men whose prejudices are out of all proportion to their knowledge of human rights, or their recognition of the paramount interests of the whole people. It was passed under the pernicious anti-democratic theory of governmental paternalism, which says that men are infants or imbeciles, unable to care for themselves unless they are fed and led and coddled by some motherly government, of which they are the irresponsible offspring. It is safe to say that no other measure ever adopted by the American Congress was so difficult of application, or was so barren of results with respect to the interests which it was intended to promote. Disorder was the first-born of the Interstate Commerce Bill, and its last offspring was—Apathy.

ISSUES OF THE CAMPAIGN OF 1888.

During the whole of Cleveland's Administration the public mind was swayed and excited by the movements of politics. The universality of partisan newspapers, the combination in their columns of all the news of the world with the invectives, misrepresentations, and counter-charges of party leaders, kept political questions constantly uppermost, to the detriment of social progress and industrial interests. Scarcely had President Cleveland entered upon his office as Chief Magistrate when the question of succession to the presidency was agitated. The echoes of the election of 1884 had not died away before the rising murmur of 1888 was heard.

By the last year of the current Administration it was seen that there would be no general break-up of the existing parties. It was also perceived that the issues between them must be *made*, rather than found in the existing state of affairs. The sentiment in the United States in favor of the Constitutional prohibition of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors had become somewhat extended and intensified since the last quadrennial election. But the discerning eye might perceive that the real issue was between the Republican and Democratic parties, and that the questions involved were to be rather those of the past than of the future.

One issue, however, presented itself which had a living and practical relation to affairs, and that was the question of Protection to American Industry. Since the campaign of 1884, the agitation had been gradually extended. At the opening of the session in 1887, the President, in his annual message to Congress, departed from all precedent, and devoted the whole document to the discussion of the single question of a *Reform of the Revenue System of the United States*. The existing rates of duty on imported articles of commerce had so greatly augmented the income of the Government that a large surplus had accumulated, and was still accumulating, in the National Treasury. This fact was made the basis of the President's argument in favor of a new system of revenue, or, at least, an ample reduction in the tariff rates under the old. It was immediately charged by the Republicans that the project in question meant the substitution of the system of free trade in the United States, as against the system of protective duties. The question thus involved was made the bottom issue in the presidential campaign of 1888.

As to the nominees of the various parties, it was from the first a foregone conclusion that Mr. Cleveland would be nominated for re-election by the Democrats. The result justified the expectation. The Democratic National Convention was held in St. Louis, on the 5th day of June, 1888, and Mr. Cleveland was renominated by acclamation. For the Vice-presidential nomination there was a considerable contest; but after some balloting the choice fell on ex-Senator Allan G. Thurman, of Ohio. The Republican National Convention was held in Chicago, on the 19th day of June. Many candidates were ardently pressed upon the body, and the contest was long and spirited. It was believed up to the time of the Convention that James G. Blaine, who was evidently the favorite of the great majority, would be again nominated for the presidency. But the antagonisms against that statesman in his own party were thought to make it inexpedient to bring him forward again as the nominee. His name was, accordingly—at his own request—not presented to the convention. The most prominent candidates were Senator John Sherman, of Ohio; Judge Walter Q. Gresham, of Chicago; Chauncey M. Depew, of New York; ex-Governor Russell A. Alger, of Michigan; ex-Senator Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, and Senator William B. Allison, of Iowa. The voting was continued to the eighth ballot, when the choice fell upon Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana. In the evening, Levi P. Morton, of New York, was nominated for the vice-presidency on the first ballot.

In the meantime, the Prohibition party had held its National Convention at Indianapolis, and on the 30th of May had nominated for the presidency General Clinton B. Fisk, of New Jersey, and for the vice-presidency John A. Brooks, of Missouri. The Democratic platform declared for a reform of the revenue system of the United States, and reaffirmed the principle of adjusting the tariff on imports, with strict regard to the actual needs of governmental expenditure. The Republican platform declared also for a reform of the tariff schedule, but at the same time stoutly affirmed the maintenance of the protective system, as such, as a part of the permanent policy of the United States. Both parties deferred to the patriotic sentiment of the country in favor of the soldiers, their rights and interests, and both endeavored, by the usual incidental circumstances of the hour, to gain the advantage of the other before the American people. The Prohibitionists entered the campaign on the distinct proposition that the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors should be prohibited throughout the United States by constitutional amendment. To this was added a clause in favor of extending the right of suffrage to women.

ELECTION OF HARRISON.

As the canvass progressed during the summer and autumn of 1888, it became evident that the result was in doubt. The contest was exceedingly close. As in 1880 and 1884, the critical States were New York, Connecticut, New Jersey and Indiana. In all of the other Northern States the Republicans were almost certain to win, while the Democrats were equally certain of success in all the South. In the last weeks of the campaign, General Harrison grew in favor, and his party gained perceptibly to the close. The result showed success for the Republican candidate. He received two hundred and thirty-three electoral votes, against one hundred and sixty-eight votes for Cleveland. The latter, however, appeared to a better advantage on the popular count, having a considerable majority over General Harrison. General Fisk, the Prohibition candidate, received nearly three hundred thousand votes, but under the system of voting no electoral vote of any State was obtained for him in the so-called "College" by which the actual choice is made. As soon as the result was known the excitement attendant upon the campaign subsided and political questions gave place to other interests.

The last days of Cleveland's administration and of the Fiftieth Congress were signalized by the admission into the Union of four new States, making the number forty-two. Since the incoming of Colorado, in 1876, no State had been added to the Republic. Meanwhile the tremendous tides of population had continued to flow to the West and Northwest, rapidly filling up the great territories. Of these the greatest was Dakota, with its area of one hundred and fifty thousand nine hundred and thirty-two square miles. In 1887 the question of dividing the territory by a line running east and west was agitated, and the measure finally prevailed. Steps were taken by the people of both sections for admission into the Union. Montana, with her one hundred and forty-five thousand seven hundred and seventy-six square miles of territory, had meanwhile acquired a sufficient population; and Washington Territory, with its area of sixty-nine thousand nine hundred and ninety-four square miles, also knocked for admission. In the closing days of the Fiftieth Congress a bill was passed raising all these four territories—South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana and Washington—to the plane of Statehood. The Act contemplated the adoption of State Constitutions and a proclamation of admission by the next President. It thus happened that the honor of bringing in this great addition to the States of the Union was divided between the outgoing and incoming administrations.

Another Act of Congress was also of National importance. Hitherto the government had been administered through seven departments, at the head of each of which was placed a Cabinet officer, the seven together constituting the advisers of the President. No provision for such an arrangement exists in the Constitution of the United States, but the statutes of the Nation provide for such a system as most in accordance with the Republican form of government. Early in 1889 a measure was brought forward in Congress, and adopted, for the institution of a new department, to be called the Department of Agriculture. Practically the measure involved the elevation of what had previously been an agricultural bureau in the Department of the Interior to the rank of a Cabinet office. Among foreign nations, France has been conspicuous for the patronage which the government has given to the agricultural pursuits of that country. Hitherto in the United States, though agriculture had been the greatest of all the producing interests of the people, it had been neglected for more political and less useful departments of American life and enterprise. By this act of Congress the Cabinet offices were increased in number to eight instead of seven.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE PRESENT.



ENJAMIN HARRISON, twenty-third President of the United States, was born at North Bend, Ohio, on the 20th of August, 1833. He is the son of John Scott Harrison, a prominent citizen of his native State ; grandson of President William Henry Harrison ; great-grandson of Benjamin Harrison, signer of the Declaration of Independence. In countries where attention is paid to honorable lineage, the circumstances of General Harrison's descent would be considered of much importance, but in America little attention is paid to one's ancestry and more to himself.

Harrison's early life was passed as that of other American boys, in attendance at school and at home duties on the farm. He was a student at the institution called Farmers' College for two years. Afterwards he attended Miami University, at Oxford, Ohio, and was graduated therefrom in June, 1852. He took in marriage the daughter of Dr. John W. Scott, President of the Oxford Female College. After a course of study he entered the profession of law, removing to Indianapolis and establishing himself in that city. With the outbreak of the war he became a soldier of the Union, and rose to the rank of Brevet Brigadier-General of Volunteers. Before the close of the war he was elected Reporter of Decisions of the Supreme Court of Indiana.

In the period following the Civil War, General Harrison rose to distinction as a civilian. In 1876 he was the unsuccessful candidate of the Republican party for governor of Indiana. In 1881 he was elected to the United States Senate, where he won the reputation of a leader and statesman. In 1884 his name was prominently mentioned in connection with the presidential nomination of his party, but Mr. Blaine was successful. After the lapse of four years, however, it was found at Chicago that General Harrison more than any other combined in himself all the elements of a successful candidate; and the event justified the choice of the party in making him the standard-bearer in the ensuing campaign.

General Harrison was, in accordance with the usages of the government, inaugurated President on the 4th of March, 1889. He had succeeded better than any of his predecessors in keeping his own counsels during the interim between his election and the inauguration. No one had discerned his purposes, and all waited with interest the expressions of his Inaugural Address. In that document he set forth the policy which he would favor as the Chief Executive, recommending the same general measures which the Republican party had advocated during the campaign.

On the day following the inaugural ceremonies, President Harrison sent in the nominations for his Cabinet officers, as follows : For Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, of Maine; for Secretary of the Treasury, William Windom, of Minnesota; for Secretary of

War, Redfield Proctor, of Vermont; for Secretary of the Navy, Benjamin F. Tracy, of New York; for Postmaster-General, John Wanamaker, of Pennsylvania; for Secretary of the Interior, John W. Noble, of Missouri; for Attorney-General, William H. Miller, of Indiana, and for Secretary of Agriculture,—the new department—Jeremiah Rusk, of Wisconsin. These appointments were immediately confirmed by the Senate, and the members of the new administration assumed their respective official duties.

Within two months after Harrison's inauguration, an event occurred which recalled the mind of the American people to the striking incidents of the Revolutionary epoch. The event in question was the great Centennial Celebration of the Institution of the American Republic. The particular date selected was the 30th of April, 1889, being the centennial anniversary of the inauguration of Washington, at New York City. All of the ceremonies connected with the commemoration in 1889 were associated, as far as practicable, with the scenes of the first inauguration. The event was so interesting and so distinctly National as to warrant a few paragraphs descriptive of the incidents of the celebration.

EPOCHS IN OUR NATIONAL LIFE.

The Revolutionary epoch in the history of the United States was marked by several crises worthy of commemoration by people of another age. These periods were :

1. The Declaration of Independence.
2. The formation of the Constitution of the United States.
3. The adoption of the Constitution by the States.
4. The Institution of the American Republic.

Of the first of these crises we should note the fact that the Declaration of Independence was a *democratic* and *popular* revolution. It was essentially destructive in character. It was designed to break the union with the Mother Country, to throw off the fetters—real or imaginary—which bound us to the Old-World order.

The second, or Constitutional crisis, was reactionary and constructive. It was the epoch of formation. The Fathers, acting from sentiments of common motive and common hope, began to consult about rebuilding, or building anew, a structure in which civil liberty in America might abide. Washington and his friends earnestly debated the feasibility of a system of government better than the old Confederation. The first conferences looking to this end were held at Mount Vernon, and then at Annapolis. Finally, a great convention of delegates was assembled at Philadelphia. The sittings were held in the summer of 1787. That strange compromise called the Constitution of the United States was produced and signed by the delegates, with Washington as their President.

This work was followed by a great political agitation. Should the new Constitution be adopted; or, should it be rejected and the old Confederate system be continued? On these questions there was a division of parties, the lines of which have not been wholly obliterated to the present day.

The story of the adoption of the Constitution has already been given in its own place in the preceding narrative. After the adoption by nine or ten States, came the striking event of the institution of the new government. Washington was made President. A Congress was constituted by an election of a House of Representatives and a Senate, according to the provisions of the new instrument. The actual setting-up of the government occurred on the 30th of April, 1789. This was the particular event which, after a lapse of a hundred years, the people and government of the United States determined to celebrate with suitable centennial and commemorative exercises.

It was decided that the intended celebration should conform as nearly as possible to the ceremonies attending the actual inauguration of Washington. There was a departure from the type of World's Fairs which had already been celebrated several times in Europe and America. In the commemoration of the institution of the government the feature of exposition was wholly omitted. Everything was designed to point backwards to the events of a century ago, and to bring to vivid recollection the manners and condition of the American people when the republic of 1789 was instituted.

CELEBRATION OF THE INSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC.

The movement for the celebration began in New York City. A committee was raised and a plan outlined for the coming event. It was decided to devote two days, namely the 30th of April and the 1st of May, 1889, to the celebration. Everything was accordingly arranged for a great military and civic parade in New York on the days indicated. For a fortnight before the event the great trains on the railways centring in the metropolis began to pour out an unusual cargo of human life. The throngs were gathered from all parts of the republic, but principally from the old Thirteen States.

The rise of the Centennial morning was auspicious, and the general appearance of New York City was such as to excite the liveliest admiration. Never was a great city more completely clad in gay apparel. Every street on both sides as far as the eye could reach was ornamented with flags and streamers, mottoes and emblems of jubilee. Broadway and Fifth Avenue were the most elaborately adorned. It is doubtful whether a finer display has ever been made in the streets of any city. The decorations covered all public and private edifices. Scarcely a house on Manhattan Island but had its share in the display. Could one have been lifted in a balloon above Castle Garden, sweeping northward with his glass, he would have seen flags on flags from the Battery to Spuyten Duyvil. Along both sides of the North and East Rivers, and in the islands of the bay, the universal emblems were flung to the breeze, and the purest of sunshine glorified the scene with a blaze of morning light.

Arrangements had been made for the President, Vice-President and members of the Cabinet, with other prominent officers of the government, to participate in the exercises. The part assigned President Harrison was the part of Washington in the first inauguration. On the arrival of the Chief Magistrate, he was tendered a public reception at several places in the city. In the evening he attended a great ball in the Metropolitan Opera House, prepared in imitation of the Washingtonian ball of 1789.

On the morning of the 30th of April, the streets of New York quickly filled with people. The exercises in commemoration of the institution of the government were held in Wall Street, where a platform had been erected in front of the Treasury building, occupying the site of the Old Federal Hall, and marked by the presence of Ward's colossal statue of Washington, on the spot where the Father of his Country had been inaugurated. Here was delivered the Centennial Oration, by Chauncey M. Depew, an address by President Harrison, and a poem written for the occasion by John Greenleaf Whittier. Meanwhile, the military parade, greatest of all such displays in the United States with the single exception of the review of the soldiers at Washington at the close of the Civil War, had been prepared for the march. The procession was under the command of Major-General John M. Schofield. The line of march was from Wall Street into Broadway, up Broadway to Waverly Place, through Waverly Place into Fifth Avenue, along that thoroughfare to Fourteenth Street, thence around Union Square to Fifth Avenue, and thence northward to Central Park.

Through all this distance and on both sides of the procession the streets were a solid wall of human beings, rising to the rear by every kind of contrivance which ingenuity could invent. The mass on the sidewalks was from twenty to fifty persons deep. In all advantageous positions scaffolding with ascending seats had been erected for the accommodation of the multitudes. At every street crossing vehicles were drawn up in a solid mass, and the privilege of standing in these or on boxes or carts was sold at high figures to eager people not better provided with a point of view. Housetops, balconies, stoops, and verandas were crowded to their utmost capacity. On came the procession, headed by the President and the commanding general. At the head of the column were two thousand regulars from the army. Then came the cadets from West Point, with their splendid marching; then the artillery of the regular army; then the marines and naval cadets, whose peculiar rolling movement showed that they had been recently gathered from the decks of ships.

After this division came the militiamen and volunteers of the National Guards from the different States of the Union. Behind this magnificent display followed the veterans of the Civil War—the men of the Grand Army of the Republic, headed by their commander-in-chief, General William Warner. The old soldiers were in column to the number of twelve thousand, arranged according to the locality from which they came, the rear being closed with a magnificent body numbering nearly four thousand from Brooklyn and Kings County, New York. It was already nightfall when this extreme left of the column passed the reviewing stand on Fifth Avenue, where the President and the chief men of the Nation were gathered.

The programme prepared by the Citizens' Committee embraced a general holiday of three days' duration, during which business was suspended throughout the city. On the 29th and 30th of April and on the 1st day of May the restriction was faithfully regarded. One might traverse Broadway and find but few business establishments open to the public. This was true particularly of the two principal days of the festival.

THE GREAT CIVIC DISPLAY.

It now remains to notice the great civic parade on the 1st of May, with which the commemorative exercises were concluded. The design was that this should represent the industries, the progress, and in general the civic life of the Metropolis of the Nation and of the country at large, as distinguished from the military display of the preceding day. It was found from the experience of the 30th that the line of march was too long, and the second day's course was somewhat shorter. It is not intended in this connection to enter into any elaborate account of the civic procession of the third day. It was second only in importance to the great military parade which had preceded it. The procession was composed, in large part, of those various civic orders and brotherhoods with which modern society so much abounds. In these the foreign nationalities which have obtained so strong a footing in New York City were largely prevalent. The German societies were out in full force. Companies representing almost every nation of the Old World were in the line, carrying gay banners, keeping step to the music of the magnificent bands, and proudly lifting their mottoes and emblems in the May-day morning.

The second general feature of this procession was the historical part. The primitive life of Manhattan Island, the adventures of the early explorers and discoverers along the American coast, the striking incidents in the early annals of the Old Thirteen States, were allegorized and mounted in visible form on chariots and drawn through the streets. All the old heroes of American history from Columbus to Peter Stuyvesant were seen again in

mortal form, received obeisance, and heard the shouts of the multitudes. From ten o'clock in the forenoon till half-past three in the afternoon the procession was under way, the principal line of march being down Fifth Avenue and through the noted squares of the city. With the coming of evening the pyrotechnic display of the preceding night was renewed in many parts of the metropolis, though it could hardly be said that the fire-works were equal in brilliancy, beauty and impressiveness to the magnificent day-pageants of the streets.

One of the striking features of the celebration was the ease and rapidity with which the vast multitudes were breathed into and breathed out of the city. In the principal hotels fully one hundred and fifty thousand strangers were registered as guests. More than twice this number was distributed in the smaller lodging houses and private dwellings of New York and Brooklyn. Yet the careful observer abroad in the streets saw neither the coming nor the going. With the appearance of the days of the celebration the throngs were present; on the following days they were gone. The great railways centring in the metropolis had done their work noiselessly, speedily, effectively. It may well be recorded as one of the marvels of modern times that only two persons are said to have lost their lives in this tremendous assemblage, extending through several days, and that at least one of these died suddenly from heart disease, while the manner of the death of the other was unknown. Such is the triumph which the mastery of the human mind over the forces of the material world has easily achieved in our age, under the guidance of that beneficent science by which the world is at once enlightened and protected from danger.

THREATENINGS OF WAR BETWEEN GERMANY AND AMERICA.

The close of the year 1888 and the beginning of 1889 were marked by a peculiar episode in the history of the country. An unexpected and even dangerous complication arose between the United States and Germany relative to the Samoan Islands. This comparatively unimportant group of the South Pacific lies in a southwesterly direction, at a distance of about five thousand miles from San Francisco, and nearly two thousand miles eastward from Australia. The long-standing policy of the government established under the administration of Washington and ever since maintained, to have no entanglements with foreign nations, seemed in this instance to be strangely at variance with the facts.

During 1888 the civil affairs of the Samoan Islands were thrown into extreme confusion by what was really the progressive disposition of the people, but what appeared in the garb of an insurrection against the established authorities. The government of the islands is a monarchy. The country is ruled by native princes, and is independent of foreign powers. The capital, Apia, lies on a bay of the same name on the northern coast of the principal island. It was here that the insurrection gained greatest headway.

The revolutionary movement was headed by an audacious chieftain called Tamasese. The king of the island was Malietoa, and his chief supporter, Mataafa. At this time, the German Empire was represented in Samoa by its Consul-General, Herr Weber, and the United States was represented by Hon. Harold M. Sewall. A German armed force virtually deposed Malietoa and set up Tamasese on the throne. On the other hand, the representative of the United States, following the policy of his government, stood by the established authority, supporting the native sovereign and Mataafa. The American and German authorities in the island were thus brought into conflict, and serious difficulties occurred between the ships of the two nations in the harbor.

When the news of this state of affairs reached Germany, in April, 1889, several additional men-of-war were sent out to the island to uphold the German cause. Mataafa and

the Germans were thus brought to war. Meanwhile the American government took up the cause of its Consul and of King Malietoa, as against the insurrection. A section of the American navy was despatched to the distant island, and the ships of war of two of the greatest nations of Christendom were thus set face to face in a harbor of the South Pacific Ocean.

In this condition of affairs, on the 22d of March, 1889, one of the most violent hurricanes ever known in the islands blew up from the north, and the American and German war vessels were driven upon the great reef which constitutes the only breakwater outside of the harbor of Apia. Here they were wrecked. The American war-ships *Nipsic*, *Trenton* and *Vandalia* were dashed into ruins. The German vessels, *Adler*, *Olga* and *Eber*, were also lost. The English vessel *Calliope*, which was caught in the storm, was the only war ship which escaped, by steaming out to sea. Serious loss of life accompanied the disaster: four American officers and forty-six men, nine German officers and eighty-seven men, sank to rise no more.

Meanwhile England had become interested in the dispute and had taken a stand with the United States as against the decision of Germany. The matter became of so great importance that President Harrison, who had in the meantime acceded to office as Chief Magistrate, appointed, with the advice of the Senate, an Embassy Extraordinary to go to Berlin and meet Prince Bismarck in a conference, with a view to a peaceful solution of the difficulty. The Ambassadors appointed for this purpose were J. A. Kasson, of Iowa; William W. Phelps, of New Jersey; and G. H. Bates, of Delaware. The Commissioners set out on the 13th of April, and on their arrival at the capital of the German Empire opened negotiations with Chancellor Bismarck and his son. The attitude and demand of the American government was that the independence of Samoa under its native sovereign should be acknowledged and guaranteed by the great nations concerned in the controversy. The conference closed in May, 1889, with the restoration of King Malietoa and the recognition of his sovereignty over the island.

THE JOHNSTOWN FLOOD.

The closing week of May, 1889, was made forever memorable in the history of the United States by the destruction of Johnstown, Pennsylvania. The calamity was caused by the bursting of a reservoir and the pouring out of a deluge in the valley below. A large artificial lake had been constructed in the ravine of the South Fork River, a tributary of the Conemaugh. It was a fishing lake, the property of a company of wealthy sportsmen, and was about five miles in length, varying in depth from fifty to one hundred feet. The country below the lake was thickly peopled. The city of Johnstown lay at the junction of the South Fork with the Conemaugh. In the last days of May unusually heavy rains fell in all that region, swelling every stream to a torrent. The South Fork Lake became full to overflowing. The dam had been imperfectly constructed. On the afternoon of May 31st the dam of the reservoir burst wide open in the centre, and a solid wall of water *from twenty to fifty feet in height* rushed down the valley with terrific violence.

The destruction which ensued was as great as the modern world has witnessed. In the path of the deluge everything was swept away. Johnstown was totally wrecked and was thrown in an indescribable heap of horror against the aqueduct of the Pennsylvania railway below the town. Here the ruins caught fire, and the shrieks of hundreds of victims were drowned in the holocaust. About three thousand people perished in the flood or were burned to death in the ruins. The heart of the Nation responded quickly to the sufferings of the survivors, and millions of dollars in money and supplies were poured out to relieve the despair of those who survived the calamity.

The year 1889 witnessed the assembling at Washington City of an International Congress. The body was composed of delegates from the Central and South American States, from Mexico, and the United States of America. Popularly the assembly was known as the "Pan-American Congress." The event was the culmination of a policy adopted by the United States some years previously. General Grant, during his presidency and in the subsequent period of his life, had endeavored to promote more intimate relations with the Spanish-American peoples. James G. Blaine, Secretary of State under Garfield, entertained a similar ambition and was the principal promoter of the enterprise. The opposition to the movement was based on prejudice—mostly political. Mr. Blaine was accused unjustly of a purpose to create in the United States a policy similar to Disraeli's "high-jingoism" in Great Britain. The United States was to become the arbiter of the Western nations. To this end the Central American and South American States must be brought, first into intimacy with our Republic, and afterwards be made to follow her lead in warding off all Europeanism.

The death of Garfield prevented the institution of some such policy as that here vaguely defined. Nevertheless, in 1884, an Act was passed by Congress authorizing the President to appoint a commission "to ascertain and report upon the best modes of securing more intimate international commercial relations between the United States and the several countries of Central and South America." Commissioners were sent out to the countries referred to, and the movement for the Congress was started. Not until May of 1888, however, was the Act passed providing for the Congress. The Spanish-American nations responded to the overtures and took the necessary steps to meet the United States in the conference. The objects contemplated were, first, to promote measures pertaining to the peace and prosperity of the peoples concerned; to establish customs-unions among them; to improve the means of communication between the ports of the States represented, and to advance the commercial interests and political harmony of the nations of the New World.

ASSEMBLING OF THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

The Spanish-American and Portuguese-American States, to the number of nine, appointed their delegates, and the latter arrived in the United States in the autumn of 1889. President Harrison on his part named ten members of the Congress as follows: John F. Hanson, of Georgia; Morris M. Estee, of California; Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia; Andrew Carnegie, of Pennsylvania; T. Jefferson Coolidge, of Massachusetts; Clement Studebaker, of Indiana; Charles R. Flint, of New York; William H. Trescot, of South Carolina; Cornelius N. Bliss, of New York, and John B. Henderson, of Missouri. Mexico sent two representatives, namely: Matias Romero and Enrique A. Maxia. Brazil, still an Empire, also sent two delegates: J. G. de Amaral Valente, and Salvador de Mendonca. The representative of Honduras was Jeronimo Zelaya; Fernando Cruz, was delegate of Guatemala, and Jacinto Castellanos, of San Salvador. Costa Rica sent as her representative Manuel Aragon. Horatio Guzman, Minister of Nicaragua, represented his government in the Congress. The Argentine Republic had two delegates; Roque Saenz Pena, and Manuel Quintana. Chili sent two delegates, Emilio C. Varas, and Josè Alfonso. The representatives of the United States of Colombia were Josè M. Hurtado, Carlos Martinez Silva, and Climaco Calderon. The delegates of Venezuela were Nicanor Bolet Peraza, Josè Andrade, and Francisco Antonio Silva; that of Peru was F. C. C. Zegarra; that of Ecuador, Josè Maria Placido Caamano; that of Uruguay, Alberto Nin; that of Bolivia, Juan F. Velarde; that of Hayti, Arthur Laforestrie, and that of Paraguay, Josè S. Decoud.

The representatives met in Washington City in October. Committees were formed to report to the body suitable action on the subjects which might properly come before it for discussion. From the first the proceedings took a peculiarly practical direction. The great questions of commerce were at the bottom of the reports, the debates and the actions which followed. Nor can it be doubted that the movement as a whole conducted in the highest degree to the friendship, prosperity and mutual interests of the nations concerned.

At the same time an International Maritime Conference, for which provisions had been made in the legislation of several nations, convened at Washington. In this case the States of Europe were concerned in common with those of the New World. All the maritime nations were invited by the act of Congress to send representatives to the National Capital in the following year, to consider the possibility of establishing uniform rules and regulations for the government of vessels at sea, and for the adoption of a common system of marine signals. Twenty-six nations accepted the call of the American government, and appointed delegates to the Congress. They, too, as well as the representatives of the Pan-American Congress, held their sittings in November and December of 1889. The same practical ability and good sense as related to the subjects under consideration were shown by the members of the Maritime Conference as by those of the sister body, and the results reached were equally encouraging and equally gratifying, not only to the government of the United States, but to all the countries whose interests were involved in the discussions.

THE TARIFF DISPUTE RENEWED—THE McKINLEY BILL.

We may here revert briefly to the work of the Fifty-first Congress. The proceedings of that branch of the government were marked with much partisan bitterness and excitement. The first question which occupied the attention of the body was the revision of the tariff. In the preceding pages we have developed, with sufficient amplitude, the history and various phases of this question. The Civil War brought in a condition of affairs which must, in the nature of the case, entail the tariff issue on the rest of the century. More than two decades elapsed after the close of the conflict before the attention of the American people was sufficiently aroused to the nature of the laws bearing on their industrial condition. Then it was that they first became aware of the fact that a schedule of customs duties, which had been brought forth under the exigency of war, still existed, and that under the operation of this schedule a vast array of protected industries had come into existence. Such industries had grown great and strong. Around them consolidated corporations had been formed, having millions of money at their command and vast ramifications into political society. As a consequence, the revenues of the United States were swollen to mountainous proportions. The treasury at Washington became engorged, and at length the necessity was developed of doing something in the nature of reform.

The condition of affairs in the treasury—depending as it did upon the tariff system—entailed two prodigious evils: The surplus served as a motive in Congress for all manner of jobbery and extravagant expenditure. In the second place, it enabled the combined monopolies of the country to uphold themselves by affecting National legislation in favor of the protected industries and against the common interest of the people as a whole. The situation was really a danger and constant menace. It was for this reason that President Cleveland, as already noted, sent his celebrated annual message to Congress touching upon the single question of the evils of the existing system, and asking that body to take such steps as should lead to a general reform.

We have already seen how this question was uppermost in the Presidential contest of 1888. The Democratic platform boldly espoused the doctrine of tariff reform, but stopped

short—out of an expedient deference to the manufacturing interests—of absolute free trade. The Republican platform declared for a revision of the tariff system—such a revision as might preserve the manufacturing interests, but favor those industries which seemed to be disparaged. This clause of the platform proved to be wonderfully effective in the political campaign. The event showed, however, that it was a shuffle. A very large part of the Republicans understood by “revision of the tariff” such legislation as should *reduce and reform* the existing system, not merely change it and adapt it to the interests of the protected classes.

With the opening of the Fifty-first Congress, it soon became apparent that “revision of the tariff” was not to mean a reform by reduction and curtailments of the schedule, but that the actual movement was in the other direction. Representative William McKinley, of Ohio, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, brought in a measure which passed into history under the name of the McKinley Bill, and which, finally adopted by the Republican majority, was incorporated as a part of the governmental system. The policy of the bill was to abolish the existing duties on a few great articles of production, particularly raw sugar and the lower grades of refined sugar. By this means a vast reduction was secured in the aggregate revenues, notwithstanding the fact that the average rates of import duties on manufactured articles in general was raised from about forty-seven per cent. to more than fifty-three per cent. The McKinley Bill became, therefore, efficient by adroitly drawing to its principles the sympathies of the protected classes, and at the same time by throwing free—and therefore cheap—sugar to the people, attracted not a little popular sympathy. The contest over the measure was extreme in animosity, and the bill was adopted only after great delay.

The sequel showed unusual results. The tariff legislation of the Fifty-first Congress was immediately attacked by the Democratic and Independent press of the country. Opinion was overwhelmingly against it. The general elections of 1890 brought an astonishing verdict of the people against the late enactments. There was a complete political revulsion by which the Republican majority in the House of Representatives was replaced by a Democratic majority of nearly three to one. At a later period a second reaction ensued somewhat favorable to the McKinley legislation, and the author of the measures referred to succeeded in being chosen, in 1891, governor of Ohio, attaining his position by a popular majority of over twenty thousand.

EXCITEMENT OVER THE RULINGS OF SPEAKER REED.

Another incident in the history of the same Congress relates to the serious difficulty which arose in the House of Representatives between the Democratic minority and the speaker, Thomas B. Reed, of Maine. The Republican majority in the Fifty-first House was not large, and the minority were easily able, in matters of party legislation, to break the quorum by refusing to vote. In order to counteract this policy, a new system of rules was reported, empowering the speaker to count the minority *as present*, whether voting or not voting, and thus to compel a quorum. These rules were violently resisted by the Democrats, and Speaker Reed was denounced by his opponents as an unjust and arbitrary officer. He was nick-named in the jargon of the times “The Czar,” because of his rulings and strong-handed method of making the records of the House show a majority when no majority had actually voted on the pending questions. It was under the provision of the new rule that nearly all of the party measures of the Fifty-first Congress were adopted.

One of the most important of these acts was the attempt to pass through Congress a

measure bearing radically upon the election-system of the United States. A bill was reported by which it was proposed virtually to transfer the control of the Congressional elections in the States of the Union from State to National authority. It cannot be doubted that the measure reached down to the fundamental principles of American political society. The "Force Bill," as it was called, brought out the strongest passions of the day. The opposition was intense. The Republican party was by no means unanimous in support of the measure. A large part of the thinking people of the United States, without respect to political affiliation, doubted the expediency of this additional measure of centralization.

Certain it was that serious and great abuses existed in the election systems of the States. In many parts of the United States elections were not free. In parts of the South the old animosities against the political equality of the black man were still sufficiently vital to prevent the freedom of the ballot. Congressmen were many times chosen by a small minority who, from their social and political superiority, were able to baffle or intimidate the ignorant many at the polls. Such an abuse called loudly for a reform, but the measure proposed doubtless contained within itself the potent germs of abuses greater than those which it was sought to remove. The Elections Bill was for a long time debated in Congress, and was then laid over indefinitely in such manner as to prevent final action upon it. Certain Republican Senators who were opposed to the measure and at the same time strongly wedded to the cause of the free-coinage of silver money, joined their votes with the Democrats and the so-called "Force Bill" failed of adoption.

THE SILVER QUESTION.

The third great measure of the Fifty-first Congress was the attempt to restore silver to a perfect equality with gold in the coinage system of the United States. Since 1874 there had been an increasing departure in the market values of gold and silver bullion, though the purchasing power of the two money metals had been kept equal when the same were coined under the provisions of legal tender. The purchasing power of gold bullion had in the last fifteen years risen about sixteen per cent., while the purchasing power of silver bullion had fallen about four per cent. in the markets of the world, thus producing a difference of twenty per cent. or more in the purchasing power of the two metals in bullion. One class of theorists, assuming that gold is the only standard of values, insisted that this difference in the purchasing power of the two raw metals had arisen wholly from a depreciation in the price of silver. This class included the monometalists—those who desire that the monetary system of the United States shall be brought to the single standard of gold, and that silver shall be made wholly subsidiary to the richer metal. To this class belonged the fund-holding syndicates, and indeed all great creditors whose interest it is to have the debts due them discharged in as costly a dollar as possible. As a matter of course, if a debt be contracted on a basis of two metals, that fact gives to the debtor the valuable option of paying in the cheaper of two coins. This valuable option the people of the United States have enjoyed, greatly to their advantage and prosperity. The silver dollar has been for precisely a hundred years (with the exception of the quadrennium extending from 1874 to 1878) the dollar of the law and the contract. It has never been altered or abridged to the extent of a fraction of a grain from the establishment of our system of money in 1792. It has, therefore, been, and continues to be, the lawful and undoubted unit of all money and account in the United States, just as much, and even more, than the gold dollar with which it is associated. If it be true, therefore, that there is a radical and irremediable departure in the value of these two metals—if it be true that we have, as monometalists assert, an

80-cent dollar—it is clearly and demonstrably true that we also have a “long dollar,” a dollar worth *more than par*, a 120-cent dollar, which the creditor classes desire to have substituted for the dollar of the law and the contract.

The advocates of the free coinage of silver have argued that the difference in the bullion values of the two money metals has arisen most largely from an increase in the purchasing power of gold, and that equal legislation and equal favor shown to the two money metals would bring them to par the one with the other, and keep them in that relation in the markets of the world. It is claimed, with good reason, that the laws hitherto enacted by Congress discriminating against silver and in favor of gold, were impolitic, unjust and un-American. It was urged in the debates of 1889–90 that the free coinage of silver would be of vast advantage to the financial interests of the country. This view and argument, however, were strenuously opposed by the money centres and the credit-holding classes of the United States, to whom the payment of all debts according to the highest standard of value, that is in gold only, was a fundamental principle.

The debates for a while seemed likely to disrupt the existing political order. Suddenly the United States Senate, by a combination of a large number of free-silver Republicans with the great majority of Democrats, passed a bill for the absolute free coinage of silver, and for the day it seemed that the measure had succeeded. The administration, however, was strongly opposed to free coinage. The Senate bill was, therefore, adroitly arrested by the management of Speaker Reed and the Ways and Means Committee of the House. Another bill, in the form of an amendment providing for the *purchase* (but not for the *coinage*) of four million ounces of silver monthly by the treasury of the United States and the payment therefor in silver certificates having the form and functions of money, was passed by the House and finally accepted by the Senate. An expansion of the paper money of the country was thus effected, while at the same time the control of the silver bullion was retained in the treasury under the management of those who were opposed to free coinage and hopeful ultimately of at least effecting a compromise by which a more valuable silver dollar may be substituted in the interest of the creditor classes in place of the standard silver dollar which has borne the full legal tender quality since the foundation of the government. By the legislation just referred to, the ultimate decision of the silver question was thrown over to another Congress, to constitute a menace and terror to party discipline for both the Democratic and Republican parties.

In addition to the admission of four new States, the Fifty-first Congress passed the necessary acts for the organization of Idaho and Wyoming. These were destined to make the forty-third and forty-fourth members of the Union. Idaho at the time of organization contained a population of 84,385. Wyoming had a population of 60,705. The acts for Statehood were passed for the two new commonwealths on the 3d and 10th of July, respectively, in the year 1890.

THE ELEVENTH CENSUS, AND DEATH OF SHERIDAN.

In June of the same year was taken the eleventh decennial census of the United States. Its results, so far as the same have been compiled, indicate that the aggregate population of the country has increased to 62,622,250, exclusive of Indians not taxed and whites in Alaska and Indian Territory. These additions will doubtless increase the grand total to about sixty-three million souls. The centre of population had continued its progress westward, having removed during the ninth decade from the vicinity of Cincinnati to a point near the hamlet of Westport, in Decatur county, Indiana.

The period which is here before us was marked by the death of three other great leaders

of the Civil War. On the 5th of August, 1888, Lieutenant-General Sheridan, at that time commander-in-chief of the American army, died at his home in Nonquitt, Massachusetts. Few other generals of the Union army had won greater admiration and higher honors. He was in many senses a model soldier, and his death at the comparatively early age of fifty-seven was the occasion of great grief throughout the country. Still more conspicuous was the fall of General William T. Sherman. Among the Union commanders in the great Civil War he stood easily next to Grant in greatness and reputation. In vast and varied abilities, particularly in military accomplishments, he was perhaps superior to all. It may well be thought that he was more fortunate than any other—and wiser. After the war he steadily refused to be other than a great soldier. No enticement, no blandishment, no form of applause or persuasion, could induce him to exchange the laurels which he had won in the immortal contest for the Union for any other form of chaplet or perishable wreath. Sherman might have been President of the United States. It were not far from the truth to believe that he was the only man in America who ever willingly put aside that glittering prize. To have fallen into the hands of politicians, place-hunters, jobbers and cormorants would have been intolerable to that brusque, sturdy and truthful nature. With a clearer vision even than the vision of Grant, he perceived that to be the unsullied great soldier of the Union was to be better than any thing made by men in caucus and convention. Born in 1820, he reached the mature age of seventy-one, and died at his home in New York City on the 14th day of February, 1891. The event produced a profound impression. The General of the Union army who had fought so many great battles and said so many great things was at last silent in death. Of his sterling patriotism there had never been a doubt. Of his prescience in war, of his learning, of his abilities as an author, there could be as little skepticism. As to his wonderful faculties and achievements, all men were agreed. His funeral became the man. He had provided for that also in advance. He had directed that nothing other than a soldier's burial should be reserved for him. His remains were taken under escort from New York to St. Louis, where they were deposited in the family burying grounds, in Mount Calvary Cemetery.

After the death of General Sherman, only two commanders of the first class remained on the stage of action from the great Civil War—both Confederates. These were General Joseph E. Johnston and James Longstreet. The former of these two was destined to follow his rival and conqueror at an early day to the land of rest. General Johnston had been an honorary pall-bearer at the funeral of Sherman, and contracted a heavy cold on that occasion which resulted in his death on the 20th of February, 1891, at his home in Washington City. Strange fatality of human affairs that after twenty-five years he who surrendered his sword to Sherman at Raleigh should have come home from the funeral of the victor to die! General Johnston was in his eighty-third year at the time of his decease. Among the Confederate commanders none were his superiors, with the single exception of Lee. After the close of the war his conduct had been of a kind to win the confidence of Union men, and at the time of his death he was held in almost universal honor.

THE NEW ORLEANS RIOT.

It was at this time, namely, in February of 1891, that a serious event reaching upward and outward, first into national and then into international proportions, occurred in the city of New Orleans. There existed in that metropolis a branch of the secret social organization among the Italians known by the European name of the Mafia Society. The principles of the brotherhood involved mutual protection, and even the law of revenge against enemies. Doubtless much of the spirit which had belonged to the Italian order of the Mafia had been

transferred to America. At any rate, some of the features of the order were un-American in character, and some of the methods dangerous to the public and private peace. Several breaks occurred between members of the society (not the society itself) and the police authorities of the city; and the latter, by arrest and prosecution, incurred the dislike and hatred of the former. The difficulty grew in animosity until at length Captain David C. Hennessey, chief of the police of New Orleans, was assassinated by some secret murderer, or murderers, who for the time escaped detection. It was believed, however, that the Mafia Society was at the bottom of the assassination, and several of the members of the brotherhood were arrested under the charge of murder.

A trial followed, and the circumstances tended to establish—but did *not* establish—the guilt of the prisoners. The proof was not positive—did not preclude a reasonable doubt of the guilt of those on trial, and the first three of the Italian prisoners were acquitted. The sequel was unfortunate in the last degree. A great excitement followed the decision of the Court and jury, and charges were made and published that the jury had been bribed or terrorized with threats into making a false verdict. These charges were never substantiated, and were doubtless without authenticity. But on the day following the acquittal of the Italians a public meeting, having its origin in mobocracy, was called, and a great crowd, irresponsible and angry, gathered around the statue of Henry Clay, in one of the public squares of New Orleans.

Speeches were made. The authorities of the city, instead of attempting to check the movement, stood off and let it take its own course. A mob was at once organized and directed against the jail, where the Italian prisoners were confined. The jail was entered by force. The prisoners were driven from their cells, and nine of them were shot to death in the jail yard. Two others were dragged forth and hanged. Nor can it be doubted that the innocent as well as the guilty (if indeed any were guilty—as certainly none were guilty according to law) suffered in the slaughter.

The event was followed by the greatest public excitement. Clearly murder and outrage had been done by the mob. It was soon proved that at least two of the murdered Italians had been subjects of the Italian Kingdom; the rest were either naturalized Americans or foreigners bearing papers of intention. The affair at once became of national, and then of international, importance. The President of the United States called upon Governor Nicolls, of Louisiana, to give an account of the thing done in New Orleans, and its justification. The governor replied with a communication in which it were hard to say whether insolence or inconsequential apology for the actions of the mob was uppermost. With this the excitement increased. The Italian Minister, Baron Fava, at Washington, entered his solemn protest against the killing of his countrymen, and the American Secretary of State entered into communication with King Humbert on the subject.

Italy was thoroughly aroused. The Italian societies in various American cities passed angry resolutions against the destruction of their fellow-countrymen by the mob, and the newspapers of the country teemed with discussions of the subject. There was unfortunately a disposition on the part of America to play the bully. At times, threats of war were freely made, and it appeared not impossible that the two countries would become unhappily involved in a conflict. The more thoughtful, however, looked with confidence to the settlement of the question by peaceable means. The Italian government presently recalled Baron Fava from Washington, and during the remainder of the year, communications between the two governments were made only through the Italian Charge d'Affaires at Washington. Gradually, however, the excitement subsided. The American government

was fortunate in having as its representative at the Court of Italy the Honorable Albert G. Porter, a man of calm temperament and deeply imbued with the sense of justice and right. By the beginning of 1892 it had become certain that the unpleasant episode would pass without further menace of war, and that the question involved in the difficulty would be justly settled in course of time by the equitable rules of diplomacy.

THE CHILIAN COMPLICATION.

The year 1891 was noted for a serious difficulty between the United States and the Republic of Chili. The complication had its origin in the domestic affairs of that republic, particularly in a revolution which, in the spring of the year named, began to make headway against the existing government. At the head of that government was President Balmaceda, against whom the popular party in the Chilian Congress was violently arrayed. The President was accused of seeking to influence the choice of his own successor in the approaching election, but more especially of retaining in office a ministry out of harmony with the Congressional majority. The latter point was the more serious, and led at length to the assumption of dictatorial powers by the President. This course seemed necessary in order to maintain himself in power and to uphold the existing ministry. The popular party receded from Congress only to take up arms. This party was known in the civil conflict that ensued as the Congressionalists, while the upholders of the existing order were called Balmacedists. The latter had possession of the government; but the former, outside of the great cities of Valparaiso and Santiago, were the most powerful.

The insurrection against Balmaceda gathered head. A Congressional Junta was formed, and a provisional government set up at the town of Iquique. Thus far the movement had in no wise disturbed the relations of Chili with the United States. It is in the nature of such revolutions that the insurgent party must acquire resources, gather arms, and create all the other means of its existence, progress and success. The Chilians of the Congressional faction found themselves in great need of arms, and would fain look to some foreign nation for a supply. In the emergency they managed to get possession of a steamship called the *Itata*, belonging to the South American Steamship Company, and sent her to the western coast of the United States to purchase arms. The steamer came to the harbor of San Diego, California, and by the agency of an intermediate vessel managed to secure a large purchase of arms, and to get the same transferred to her own deck. At this juncture, however, the government, gaining information of the thing done, ordered the detention of the *Itata* until her business and destination could be known. A district attorney of the United States was sent on board the ship, which was ordered not to leave the bay. In defiance of this order, however, the officers of the *Itata* steamed out by night and got to sea. They put the officer of the United States in a boat, sent him ashore, and disappeared over the Pacific horizon.

The announcement of the escape of the *Itata* led to vigorous action on the part of the government. The United States war-ship *Charleston* was ordered out in pursuit from the bay of San Francisco. The *Itata*, however, had three days the start, and it could hardly be expected that the *Charleston* would be able to overhaul the fugitive. The latter made her way to one of the harbors of Chili, whither she was pursued by the *Charleston*. But the matter had now come to protest made by the United States to the provisional government of the Revolutionists, and the latter consented to the surrender of the *Itata* to the authorities of our country. This was done, and the incident seemed for the time to have ended without serious consequences.

After the affair of the *Itata* public opinion in Chili, particularly in the cities of Santiago and Valparaiso, turned strongly against the United States. This is said of the sentiments of the Congressional party. That party saw itself thwarted in its design and put at fault by its failure to secure the wished-for supply of arms, that failure having arisen through the agency of our government. However correct the course of the United States may have been, the Revolutionists must needs be angered at their disappointment, and it was natural for them to look henceforth with distrust and dislike on the authorities of our country. This dislike centred about the legation of the United States in Santiago. Hon. Patrick Egan, the American Minister, became unpopular with the Congressionalists because of his supposed favor to the Balmacedan government. That government still stood. It was recognized by the President of the United States as the government both *de jure* and *de facto* of Chili. Egan must therefore hold relations with Balmaceda and his Minister of Foreign

Affairs. He must continue to stand in with the existing order until some other order should be established in its stead.

A SERIOUS SITUATION.

It appears that our Minister and our government misapprehended the importance and strength of the Revolutionary movement. The Congressionalists steadily gained ground. Perhaps the revolution which was progressing could not be seen in full magnitude from



CITY AND HARBOR OF VALPARAISO.

the position occupied by our Minister at the Chilian capital. At all events, the Congressional army came on in full force, and soon pressed the government back to the limits of the capital and the immediate vicinity of that city. Affairs drew to a crisis. A bloody battle was fought at a place called Placilla, near Santiago. The Balmacedists gave way before the storm. The battle of Placilla and a subsequent engagement still nearer to the capital went against them. The insurgents burst victoriously into Santiago, and the revolution accomplished itself by the overthrow of the existing government. Everything went to wreck. Both Santiago and Valparaiso were taken by the Revolutionary party. The Balmacedists were fugitives in all directions. The Dictator himself fled into hiding, and presently made an end by committing suicide.

In such condition of affairs it was natural that the defeated partisans of the late government should take refuge in the legations of foreign nations at the capital. A Ministerial legation is, under international law, an asylum for refugees. At this time the official residences of the foreign nations at Santiago, with the exception of that of Great Britain, were all crowded more or less with fugitives flying thither for safety from the wrath of the suc-

cessful Revolutionists. The attitude of Great Britain from the first had been favorable to the Congressional party, and it was evident that that power would now stand in high favor with the victors.

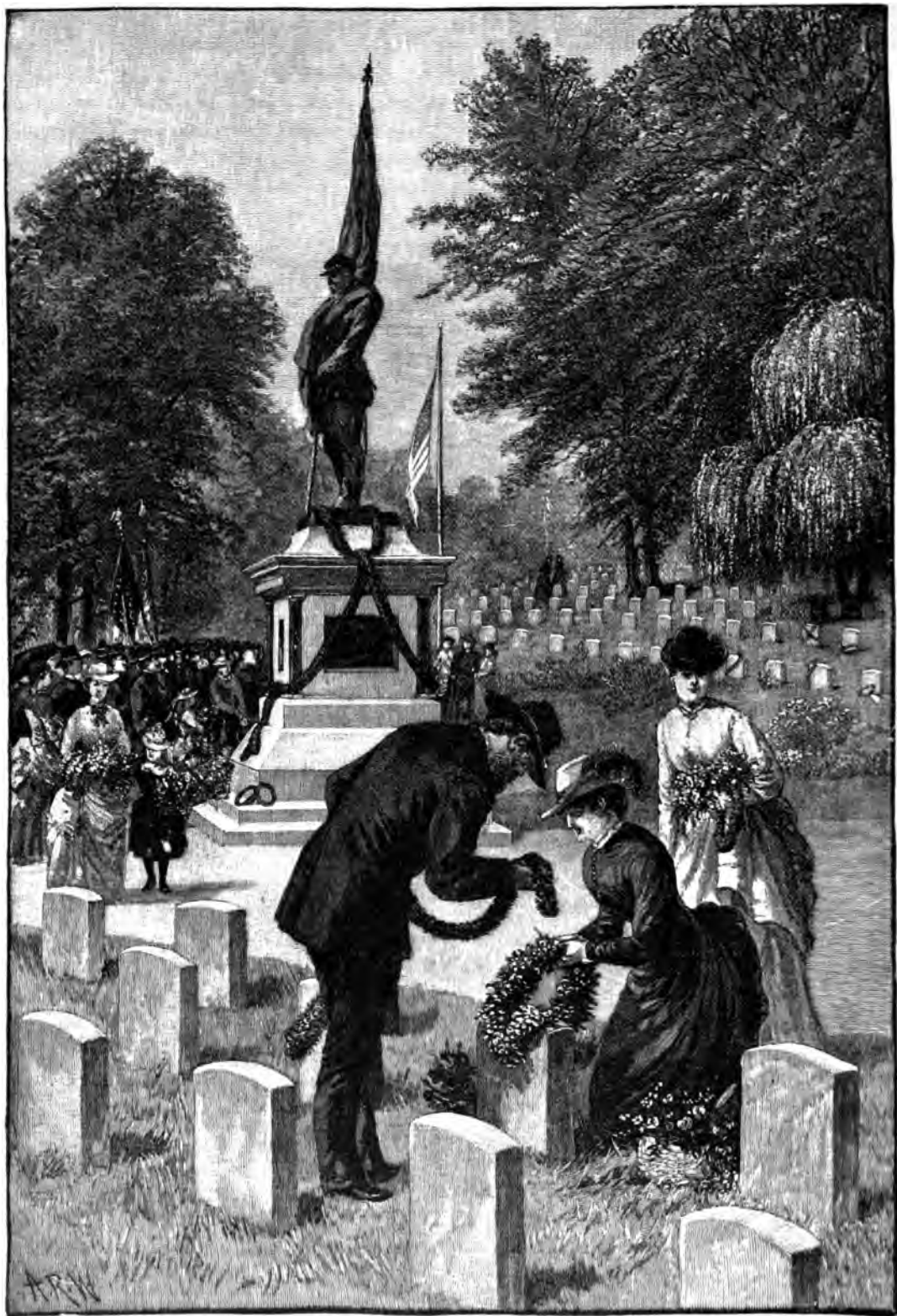
It chanced that the Minister of the United States was by birth an Irishman. He was an Irish agitator and British refugee lately naturalized in America. Probably the antagonistic attitude of Great Britain and the United States at the Chilian capital was attributable in part to the nativity and political principles of Egan. At all events the American Ministerial residence gave asylum to numbers of the defeated Balmacedists, and the triumphant Revolutionists grew more and more hostile to our government and Minister because they could not get at those who were under his protection. This hostility led to the establishment of a police guard and a force of detectives around the American legation. It seemed at times that the place might be actually attacked and taken by the angry victors in the recent revolution. At length, however, under the protests of our government, the guards were withdrawn and the legation was freed from surveillance. Relations began to grow amicable once more, when the difficulties suddenly took another and more serious form.

MURDEROUS ASSAULT ON THE CREW OF THE BALTIMORE.

It happened at this time that the war vessels of several nations visited the harbor of Valparaiso, drawn thither by interest and for the sake of information or the business of the respective navies. Among the ships that came was the United States war-steamer *Baltimore*. On the 16th of October, 1891, a hundred and seventeen petty officers and men, headed by Captain Schley, went on shore by permission, and in the usual way went into the city of Valparaiso. Most of them visited a quarter of the city not reputable in character. It soon became apparent that the ill-informed enmity and malice of the lower classes were strongly excited at the appearance of the men and uniform of the United States on the streets. With the approach of night, and with apparent pre-arrangement, a Chilian mob rose upon the sailors and began an attack. The sailors retreated and attempted to regain their ship; but the mob closed around them, throwing stones, and presently at closer quarters using knives and clubs. Eighteen of the sailors were brutally stabbed and beaten, and some died from their injuries. The remainder leaving the wounded behind them escaped to the ship.

Intelligence of this event was at once communicated to the government of the United States. The country was greatly excited over the outrage, and preparations were begun for war. The navy department was ordered to prepare several vessels for the Chilian coast. The great war-ship *Oregon* and two others were equipped, manned and directed to the Pacific shores of South America. The President immediately directed the American Minister at Santiago to demand explanation, apology, and reparation for the insult and crime committed against the government of the United States. The Chilian authorities began to temporize with the situation. A tedious investigation of the riot was undertaken in the courts of Santiago, resulting in an inconsequential verdict.

Meanwhile, Senor M. A. Matta, Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, added fuel to the flame by transmitting an offensive communication to Senor Pedro Montt, representative of the Chilian government at Washington, in which he reflected on the President of the United States, accused our government of falsehood, attacked Egan, and ended by instructing Montt to let the contents of the note be known! This was soon followed by another communication from Senor Matta, demanding the recall of Patrick Egan from the Chilian capital, as *persona non grata* to the government. But he failed to specify the particular qualities or acts in the American Minister which made him unacceptable.

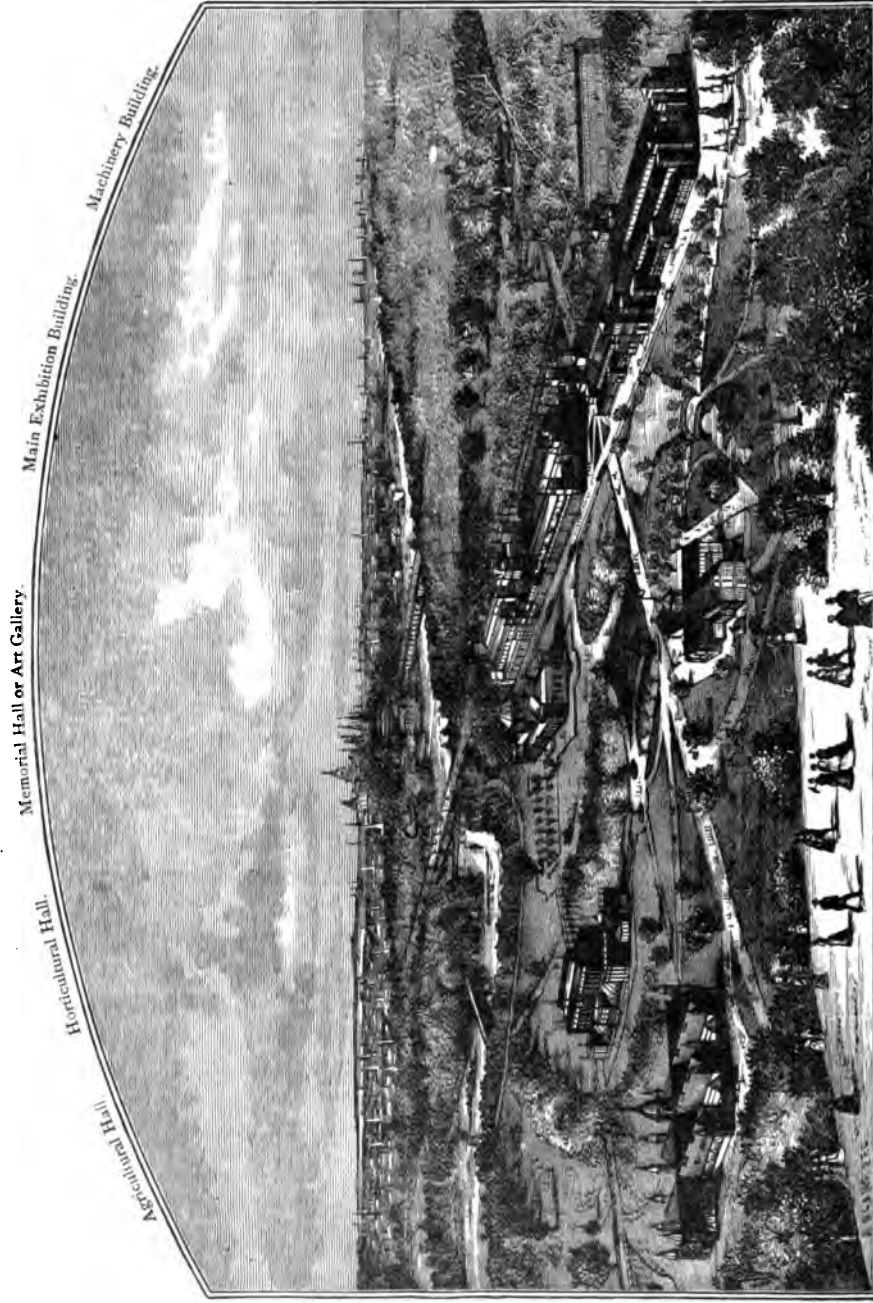


DECORATION DAY --THE TRIBUTE THAT PEACE PAYS TO THE MEMORY OF THE BLUE AND THE GRAY.

The publication of these two notes brought matters to a crisis. The President, through the proper authorities, demanded that the offensive note of Matta be withdrawn ; that the demand for the recall of Egan be reconsidered, and that reparation for the insults and wrongs done to the crew of the *Baltimore* be repaired with ample apology and salute to the American flag by the Chilian government. Answers to these demands were again delayed, and on the 25th of January, 1892, the President sent an elaborate message to Congress, laying before that body an account of the difficulties, and recommending such action as might be deemed necessary to uphold the honor of the United States. For a single day it looked like war.

Scarcely, however, had the President's message been delivered to Congress when the Chilian government, receding from its high-toned manner of offense and arrogance, sent, through its Minister of Foreign Affairs, a paper of full apology for the wrongs done, and offering to submit the affair of the *Baltimore* to arbitration of some friendly power. The offensive note of Senor Matta was unconditionally withdrawn. The demand for the removal of Egan was recalled, and indeed all reasonable points in the contention of the President freely and fully conceded. The crisis broke with the knowledge that the apology of Chili had been received, and like the recent difficulty with Italy over the New Orleans massacre, the imbroglio passed without further alarm or portent of war.

The History of Our Country has thus been recited from its discovery by the adventurers at the close of the fifteenth century down to the beginning of the Columbian Year 1892. THE QUADRI-CENTENNIAL STORY is complete ! The four centuries of time through which we have passed since the unveiling of the continent have brought us the experience of the ages, and let us hope the wisdom and virtues of the greatest nations of the earth. Our republic has passed through stormy times, but has come at last in full splendor and with uplifted banners to the dawn of the great anniversary which is to commemorate the discovery of the New World. As a united Nation, we are already well advanced into the second century of our existence. Peace and tranquillity are abroad. Clouds of distrust and war have sunk behind the horizon. Here at least the equality of all men in rights and privileges before the law has been written with an iron pen in the Constitution of our country. The Union of the States has been consecrated anew within our memories by the blood of patriots and the tears of the lowly. Best of all, the temple of Freedom reared by our patriot Fathers still stands in undiminished glory. THE PAST HAS TAUGHT ITS LESSON, THE PRESENT HAS ITS DUTY, AND THE FUTURE ITS HOPE.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION AT PHILADELPHIA.

PART IV.

The Columbian Exposition.

BY HON. BENJ. BUTTERWORTH.



Scope and Purpose of the World's Fair.

By Hon. Benjamin Butterworth.



The grounds and buildings will be dedicated on the 12th day of October, 1892, the anniversary of the discovery.

The gates will be opened to visitors on the 1st of May, 1893, and the Exhibition will close on the 30th day of October following.

In scope and plan it will be more elaborate, and in architectural design and beauty or ornamentation it will far surpass any previous exhibition.

The cost of preparation will exceed \$25,000,000. Everything from the inception to the close of the international enterprise will be on a scale commensurate with the resources and greatness of the Nation, and characteristic of the intelligence and aggressive energy of its people.

Every nation and all peoples have been invited by the Government of the United States to participate. Fifty-nine nations have accepted the invitation, and each will be represented in a manner suitably illustrating the resources, industries and customs of its people, and indicating the progress made by them in civilization.

Fifty States and Territories of the National Union will also take part.

The several Executive Departments—State, War, Navy, Treasury, Justice, Interior, Post Office, Agriculture, and the Smithsonian Institute, National Museum and Bureau of Fish and Fisheries will make exhibits showing the functions of the National Government and illustrating scientifically its resources.

Conservative estimates place the number of admissions to the grounds at thirty-five millions.

The foregoing information has been published in every civilized tongue and read in every corner of the world.

Great industrial expositions are a development of the present century, indeed of the last half century. They were possible only after peace had become the prevailing condition among nations. They are another evidence that all nations are made of one blood, that the same laws are made for all, that each has an important influence upon others; that those who dwell upon all the face of the earth have vast interests in common, and that this com-



ADMINISTRATION BUILDING.

munity of interests becomes most obvious in those things that are visible and tangible.

The Columbian Exposition will surpass all others in its extent and completeness. The array of buildings will not be more remarkable for number and size than for the variety of architectural designs, illustrating every phase of that art which, first of all arts, was devised to minister to the comfort and protection of man.

The exhibition of machinery will include every

invention for increasing the efficiency of human labor, from the crude beginning to the finely wrought and perfectly adjusted structures which perform their complicated task with an accuracy and perfection that suggests, almost irresistibly, an intelligent and sleepless will.

Works of art, from all countries, the product of the masters of painting and sculpture, will be exhibited, that visitors may have whatever advantage there may be in studying beauty of form and coloring.

The productions of all countries, whether grown from the earth, or produced by handcraft, or by machinery, will be displayed to give an intelligent apprehension of the condition of every people, as shown by the kind and degree of skill and invention.

The Exposition will be a little world, comprising within the area of a few hundred acres along the front of the great lake all that can be collected of the results of skill and science and industry which the world has to show in the closing decade of the nineteenth century.

Every reader will naturally ask—What is the mission of the World's Columbian Exposition? What advantage to the nations participating? Is there anything beyond a vast display of the work of men's hands? Anything higher than to excite wonder and gratify

curiosity, by an unparalleled exhibition of the material results of skill and industry? It is the purpose of this volume to answer these inquiries, to point out without wearisome elaboration, the grandeur of the opportunity presented by the World's Columbian Exposition, to make clear its relation to the progress of civilization and the elevation of man. It is hoped that the reader may be satisfied, that if rightly improved, in far reaching influence for good, it will be one of the glories of the nineteenth century.

The exhibit made by our own government will be an education to millions of spectators. Our National Government is so much removed from the daily life and the homes of the people that they are in danger of underrating the vast interests committed to its keeping. It scarcely reminds the citizens of its existence, except by an occasional tax-gatherer and the universal ministry of the mail service.

In the Columbian Exposition the people will have an opportunity, never before equalled, to examine the proofs, not only of the power of their government, but of the range and variety of works which it performs, for the benefit of the people.

Such an object lesson cannot fail to increase the feeling of respect and satisfaction with which our citizens regard their government, which they uphold and which in turn benefits and protects them.

It must not be supposed that the enterprise is restricted to the realm of material things—to machines and devices, which are the conceptions of genius, fashioned by artisans and workmen. There is another side to this great exhibition. The curtain will rise upon another scene, if not as imposing to



GOVERNMENT BUILDING.

the senses, yet not less interesting and instructive. This feature relates to the domain of the mind, the province of the intellect. It will deal with moral, social and religious themes, consider the helps and hindrances to progress. It will attempt to survey every region of intellectual and moral activity. This department, for want of a better name, is called "The World's Congresses," which will hold their sessions from the opening to the close of the Exposition. They will consider and deal with "not things, but men," "mind not matter." The ablest thinkers, the best writers, the most intelligent observers and workers of the age will meet to discuss those intricate and perplexing social, moral, political and economic questions, upon a right solution of which alone nations must depend to secure real prosperity—that degree of comfort and contentment, which is indispensable to peace and advancement. The achievements of civilization, its treasures and wealth, are not for the advantage of a few. But how the many shall share its benefits and enjoy its advantages is one of the problems of our time. How other and additional means may be discovered and applied so as to multiply the facilities for securing in a satisfactory degree the comforts to which all deem themselves entitled, is another of the

vexed problems. How the burdens of life shall be equitably distributed among the burden-bearers, and how the reward justly due to those who worthily endure shall be secured to them, is still another. How justice shall come without violence, and peace remain, though equity may not be fully secured, is yet to be learned.

The author, apprehending the importance of an early and wise solution of the social and economic problems that confront us, will endeavor to point out how this International Exposition may be utilized to change fruitless discontent into prosperous effort, and show that intelligent energy may overcome even unfriendly conditions.

It has become an axiom that an intelligent study of the past is the best light for future guidance, but a comprehensive knowledge of the present is not less essential.

To-day should inspire the hope of to-morrow, but to-day must be understood. Nevertheless, knowledge of itself is of little value. Alone it rather tends to self-conceit and complacent indolence. Knowledge and wisdom are too often separated. We acquire knowledge by seeing and hearing; we become wise, if at all, by investigation, by patient study and serious meditation.

Knowledge is from without, and requires only industry and a retentive memory.

Wisdom is from within, and manifests itself in the just and effective application of knowledge to beneficent uses.

The functions of a material civilization are to provide for existing wants; to create new wants and supply them. To do this involves the invention and discovery of means to make labor more efficient, to get the best results from every effort, to learn the best and *all* the uses of which the materials at hand are capable



FISH AND FISHERIES BUILDING.

to bring to light the hidden forces of nature, and make them servants, obedient to our will.

Among its higher aims are the means to disseminate knowledge, to secure to every man under government the enjoyment of the right to eat the bread his own hands have earned, and to compel him, if need be, to observe his obligations to others; to throw open wide the door of opportunity, and yet draw the line between liberty, which is government of just laws equally administered, and license, which overthrows laws and makes liberty impossible.

It aims to demonstrate that anarchy is not an aid to equality, that there is no deserved success without labor, nor permanent prosperity without economy, and that all effects are the result of definite causes whether known or unknown.

These high themes will be patiently discussed by men who bring long study and observation, and ripe experience, to guide their daily conclusions. No more fitting place or time could be chosen for these daily discussions, than the one selected, when hundreds of thousands of people from every part of the country, are witnessing the vast material

triumphs of the present century, and where the world of modern enterprise, and skill and crushing energy, is condensed around them.

Nothing is more difficult than to predict, with any approach to accuracy, the influence of any event. History is strewn with illustrations of endless and limitless consequences from causes trivial in themselves, almost unnoticed, not even considered.

The entreaties of his hungry and weary child turned Columbus, discouraged and dispirited, with his face set toward other lands, to the hospitable door of a monastery, where the good Friar, who had been the Queen's Confessor, became his champion and obtained for him audience and favor with Isabella.

A flight of birds turned the great navigator from his due west course, to discover land among the West India Islands, instead of landing on our Carolina shores. This trivial accident decided that Spanish civilization should work its destiny in Central and South America, and that the Saxon should possess the great northern continent.

A plodding, prosaic German mechanic cuts letters in wood and slowly transfers them to paper. But from this arose the invention of printing, and the achievement of the greatest revolution of the world.

The studies and speech of an obscure monk call in question the wisdom of existing institutions and teachings, and for more than a century, politics, diplomacy, statecraft and war are controlled and directed by the sentiments and influences which he has evoked.

A bark laden with a handful of exiles lands upon a desolate shore in mid-winter, but they bring with them Law and reverence for law, a church and a state of perfect equality, where all are both teachers and taught, rulers and governed, and a vast empire of freedom and law rises up and calls their memory blessed.

The writer, in a recent visit to all the capitals of Europe, was required to confer with those who control nations. Everywhere he found a lively interest in the great Exposition. This interest was not confined to its material aspects, to inventions and machinery, and their products. It looked farther to the great meeting of nations where the experience of one may become the instruction and help of all, where observation and discussion may become influential in solving the intricate social and economic problems which confront every nation.

It is not expected that a day or a month or a year will witness radical changes. These can only be made suddenly through war and revolution, the earthquake and tornado of the social and political world, working their startling changes through suffering and death, through waste and desolation. But it is not an unreasonable expectation that, as every exposition has left enduring results for good, so this one, commemorating the most noteworthy enterprise of all the ages, endowed and patronized by the Great Republic and every



BUILDING OF MANUFACTURERS AND LIBERAL ARTS.

one of its States, and by all nations, will leave a wider and deeper influence than all its predecessors.

No better evidence can be afforded that this expectation is general and well settled, than the appearance of this volume. It is not a cheap and transient publication. It carries full proof of the confidence and liberality of the publishers, and the industry and learning of its authors.

That men of life-long study and established fame as writers of history should turn aside from the adventures of heroes, from the tumult of nations, to the quiet story of a triumph of peace, is significant that men take increasing interest in the ways and methods which lead to improvement without violence.

It is a work of permanent value. It is at once a biography of one of most famous men, a history of the United States, a history of those great peaceful meetings of nations which have crowned the century of peace, ending with the account of the last and greatest of them all. It possesses all the requisites of valuable and instructive history—themes of perennial interest, and experience, study and consummate literary skill in their treatment.

A great writer long since said, "Happy is that nation whose annals are tiresome." In all the past, men have turned away from the story of peace, to the stirring record of bloodshed and revolution and all the blazonry of war. This volume is a happy evidence of the near approach of the better time, when the annals of peace will be no longer tiresome.

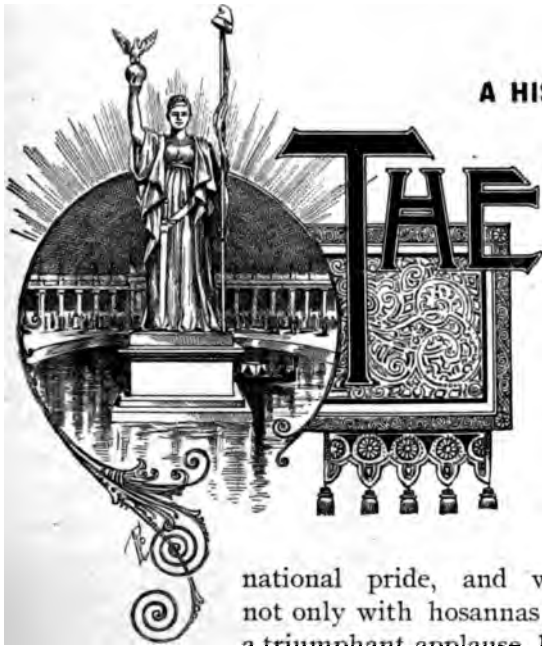


The World's Fair at Chicago.

By J. W. Buel.

CHAPTER I.

A HISTORY OF ANCIENT FESTIVALS.



CULMINATION of American history, the attainment of that lofty goal of pure democratic government which has been gained by persistent climbing up the long winding way of progress; the ascent to the elevated plateau of human freedom from which the metes and bounds of the world's civilizations may be surveyed and contrasted, stand as the resplendent results achieved in the New World four hundred years after its discovery.

Self-gratulation is not only pardonable but patriotic when our jubilation partakes of national pride, and we accordingly celebrate our accomplishments not only with hosannas of exultation, and pay ourselves the tribute of a triumphant applause, but invite all nations to bring examples of the fruits of their success and display them in a peaceful rivalry with our own.

Like our republican institutions, which have flourished and flowered here into unexampled perfection, so our Columbian Exposition must endure as a monument no less characteristic of the sovereignty of American manhood in the glory of its proudest achievement. Like the gradual fulfilment of our destiny—the full performance of which lies hidden in the dim perspective of the future—the idea of a national celebration, conceived at a time as ancient as civilization itself, has grown by the accretion of experience and the cultivation of that ambition which seeks the highest happiness in the peaceful prosperity of our nation, and the endurance of a government built upon the firmest foundation of individual rights and universal freedom.

It is not more interesting to note the development of democracy from its crude incipency, when Clisthenes, at Athens, 500 B. C., began the experiment, than it is to follow the slow evolution of commercial growth, observing as we must that political and civil progress keeps pace with the unfolding of enlightenment, as well as with the exigencies of condition and environment. Originally man was at peace, because ambition was not a coincident of his birth; but the increase of families created the necessity for some form of

government, and as this called for the establishment of a central authority, elevation to supremacy begat ambition, which in turn became father to the attendant evils of greed, avarice and injustice. Out of these strife arose as a natural consequence, and war was the result. But in turn the evil thus accentuated in human nature became father to religious instinct, for evil must have its opposing counterpart; thus, in the absence of human power to punish wrong, appeal was most naturally made to an omnipotence from whom all power is received; while reverence and propitiation to this unseen but mighty protector became the reliance that developed into religion.

Religion therefore reinstituted the rule of peace, which though failing to turn the mind of man wholly from the pursuits of war and mad ambition, yet measurably abated his savagery and, by gradually refining, finally directed him in the use of the higher gifts which God has bestowed. Thus the warrior became the artisan and the agriculturist, who found prosperity and peace in cultivating the soil, which quickened his conscience to an appreciation of the manifold blessings that descend in the rain, are poured out by the sun, and spring up in golden fruitage from the earth to reward his toil.

EARLIEST FORMS OF FESTIVAL CELEBRATION.

The three phases through which the earlier civilizations passed were each in turn celebrated by some form of tribal or national thanksgiving, and this manifestation of gratitude, as well as expression of self-felicitation, was encouraged by the institution of particular forms of celebration, and the designation of certain days, or seasons, for their observance.

The first exhibition of man's acknowledgment to the spiritual influence that controls his destiny was in the nature of propitiatory feasts, developing into festivals as his reverent attachments and religious propensities advanced towards orderly, or prescribed ceremonials. Thus the primary form was reverence for the dead, or a mixture of ghost worship and sacrifice, which being often repeated became constantly elaborated at intervals until it grew into public observance. Having thus become a recognized form in the social government, a calendar regulating the times of such ceremonies was a necessity, and a computation was naturally suggested by the moon's phases. But as the mind of man is ever expanding and leading him to higher conceptions, the lunar reckoning was directly combined with the solar, so that to the lunar feasts there were added seasonal festivals, corresponding to the four periods which distinctively mark the year. Among the most barbaric tribes there is seen the practice of friends and relatives laying offerings of food and drink upon the graves of their dead at the opening of each month; again, among the semi-civilized we observe the custom of strewing graves of relatives with fruits and flowers in their season, observances which have existed longer than the records of history describe. Among the ancient Peruvians, Prescott tells us, it was a custom to carry the embalmed bodies of their Incas to a public square of their capital, and at the autumnal festival offer to them a part of the fruits of the harvest. In this celebration we have a mixing of the religious with the commercial, or a propitiation of the spirit, combined with a worship of the powers of nature.

The ancient Egyptians carried their celebrations, and oblations to the dead, to an extraordinary extreme, for they appointed twelve festivals for each month, and three principal festivals for the year. Besides these days of offerings, there was a great feast day observed as a special honor to the god of the Nile, at which a maiden was sacrificed as a propitiation, as well as a thank offering, for the benefactions the god conferred by raising the waters and fructifying the valley. The victim thus consecrated to the Nilotic divinity



SACRIFICE OF A VIRGIN TO THE GOD OF THE NILE.

was chosen from among the fairest and purest of Egyptian virgins, and on the day of sacrifice was garlanded with flowers and adorned with rich raiment and jewels. Thus prepared, amid songs of praise she was committed to the rising water, bound to a raft which could not support her weight, or being stationary, as the river rose she was gradually overwhelmed.

FAIRS OF FARTHER INDIA, MEXICO AND PERU.

The most ancient literatures of the world, such as the Rig-Veda, record recurrent or seasonal festivals, in which sacrifices were offered; and similar observances were common among the Phoenicians, who added to the practice of offering some simple sacrifice, which obtained in ancient India, the immolation of human victims. Customs that were almost identical with these were prevalent in China and Japan, differing only in respect to their commercial import, for among these latter people superstition was made largely subordinate to their material interests, so that their national festivals had somewhat the character of a fair.

It is interesting, because very curious, to know that the ancient Mexicans, or rather the Aztecs, held calendar festivals which were almost a counterpart of those which the oldest Chinese records describe; so nearly identical, indeed, as to give rise to the belief, expressed by many investigators, that the idea of holding such celebrations originated with one people and was by them communicated to other nations. This theory pre-supposes inter-continental intercourse and navigation of the high seas at a period of remote antiquity, yet even before this question not a few theorists continue to urge the belief. When Cortez invaded Mexico, among many other surprising things which he witnessed, attesting a high degree of civilization among the Mexicans, were such fairs as might well compare with those that had been held at Salamanca and Granada.

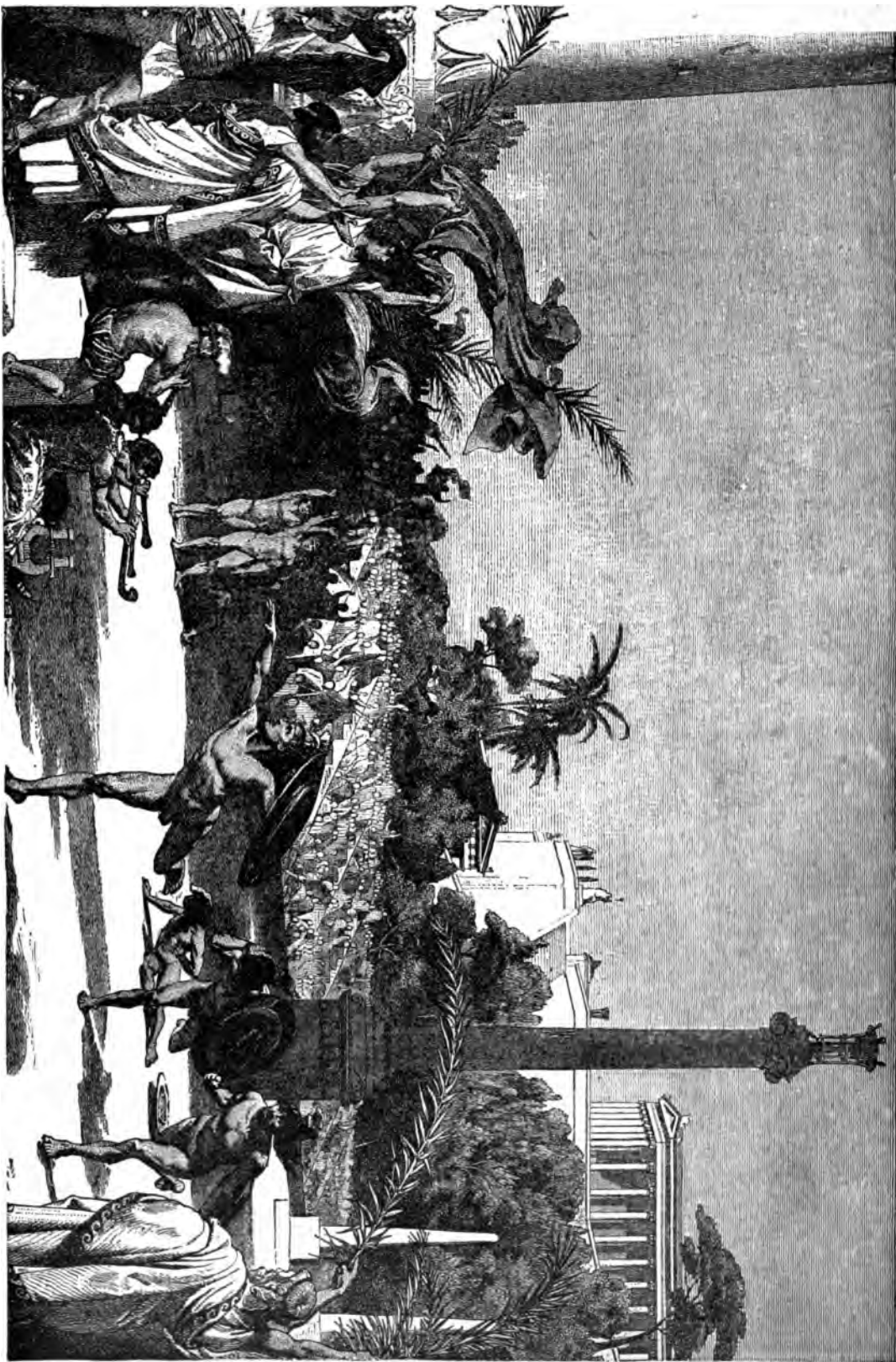
But centuries before the Spanish invasion the Aztecs held at intervals, sometimes measured by the seasons, and at others by years, fairs of more or less importance. The attendance was usually from 40,000 to 50,000 persons, but on special occasions, corresponding somewhat to our National expositions, the number of visitors exceeded 100,000. These annual fairs, too, were institutions well supported, particularly by the agricultural population, for tilling the soil was the chief occupation. Prescott thus describes the management:

"Officers patrolled the square, whose business it was to keep the peace, to collect the dues imposed on the various kinds of merchandise, to see that no false measures or fraud of any kind were used, and to bring offenders at once to justice. A court of twelve judges sat at one part of the *tianguetz* (a building at the end of the court) clothed with those ample and summary powers which, in despotic countries, are often delegated even to petty tribunals. The extreme severity with which they exercised those powers proves that they were not a dead letter."

EXHIBITIONS AMONG THE GREEKS AND ROMANS.

When we come to consider the evolution of the Fair among the nations that exhibited the highest civilization in the early periods of history, we find that from the religious festival, associated with ancestor worship as it originally was, there developed what were called games, or athletic contests, which brought together, on well advertised occasions, contestants from widely separated districts, and their rivalries were exhibited before excited multitudes, among whom royalty was not ashamed to be seen.

We have from Homer allusions, amounting at times to descriptions, of the very ancient and crude Greek festivals, which had grown so great in public estimation in the time of Hesiod, some 900 years B. C., that they were fully developed into national celebrations,



THE FOOT-RACE BY GRECIAN ATHLETES.

though held at infrequent intervals. But this form of observance increased in favor until the time of Strabo, about 60 years B. C., when the Greek holidays exceeded in number the working days. Many of these, indeed a considerable majority, were what may be called nature-festivals, associated as they were with the seasonal phenomena, but not a few were commemorative of historical events, and these developed into the Olympian, Pythian, Nemean and Isthmian games.

Among the Romans the evolution of public festivities was equally marked as among the Greeks. From simple observances, confined to families on occasions of mourning, which strange enough took the form of festival, the custom grew until national celebrations, religious and secular, were the result. They at length became fixed by imperial proclamation, and were finally become so numerous that Marcus Antonius found it necessary, for the public benefit, to reduce the number of holidays, even at the risk of offending some in whose honors the festivals thus interdicted had been instituted.

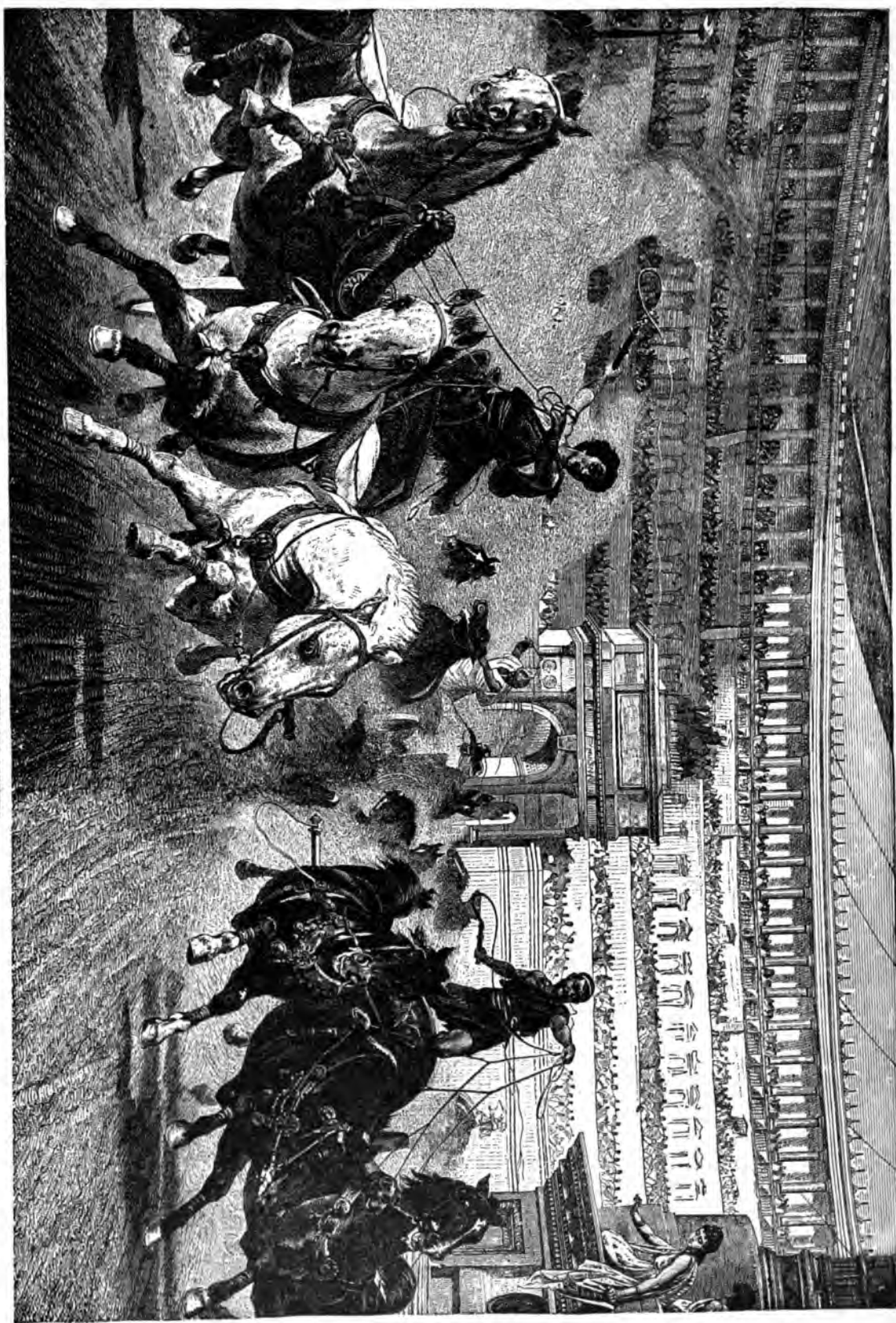
The Jewish Feasts, many of which still survive, were nearly all borrowed from the Egyptians and applied to the commemoration of events which had a doubtful existence. The Sabbath probably took its observance from the lunar periods, while the Feast of the Passover and of Tabernacles are a continuation of the very ancient Egyptian celebrations of the vernal and autumnal equinoxes.

THE OLYMPIAN GAMES.

But the most pronounced advance, a distinct epoch in the process of festival evolution, is found in the inauguration of the Olympian games, as successor to the more quiet observances that distinguished the earlier periods of Greek national life. The first mention of games as a form of Hellenic festivity is found in the *Iliad*, describing the funereal ceremonies that followed the death of Patroclus. The exhibitions therein given are a testimony to the belief entertained, by Greek and Roman alike, that the dead are gratified by such displays as afford pleasure in life. It was this belief that gave creation to the chariot race and athletic competitions in archery, boxing, wrestling, running, jumping, fencing, etc. For in the early ages men's chief aspirations centred about feats of arms; nations like Rome and Greece literally lived by the sword, and to be a mighty warrior was, therefore, the loftiest ambition that a man could entertain. The games were celebrated near some consecrated place, and were invariably connected by some mythical story with a heroized warrior or a local deity.

The Olympian games were probably instituted by the Eleians and Pisans about 800 years B. C., and their celebration continued uninterruptedly until a decree of Theodosius abolished them about 380 B. C.

A more exciting spectacle was never witnessed than these national celebrations offered. They were in their general aspects a national exposition of human skill and endurance, since the lists were opened to all blameless Greeks who chose to compete for honors. Every four years the exhibition took place and lasted at first through one day, but were afterwards extended to five days. Preparatory to the opening of the festival, heralds were despatched throughout Greece and her dependencies proclaiming a truce. Instantly war's harsh clamor was hushed; tents were folded and all field operations became suspended even in the face of an enemy, and every step of the Greek patriot was bent towards Olympia, the city sacred to his gods, where the rich plain of Elis spread out like a banquet table laden with the fruits of exuberant nature. So strong was the Greek's attachment, nay reverence, for the institution, and so religiously did he observe the month as sacred to peace, that even the



A CHARIOT RACE IN THE COLOSSEUM.

nation's peril was insufficient to induce him to violate the sanctity of the holy days by going out to meet an enemy.

EXCITING AND DANGEROUS SPORTS OF THE GREEKS.

The games were contested upon a plain in which an amphitheatre was constructed capable of accommodating 100,000 people. At one end, next to an olive grove, were ten tents, the quarters of as many judges, representatives of the ten Eleian tribes. Near these tents was the Altis gymnasium, in which contestants trained for ten months preceding the opening of the games. On the morning of the day on which the exhibition began a train of sacred deputies, clad in their robes of office, arrived at the entrance in rich carriages of state, bearing their offerings to the god Zeus, in whose honor the games were instituted. The contestants followed and presented themselves before the judges, to whom they proffered the proofs of their pure Hellenic descent and spotless character, and qualified themselves further by swearing they would honorably engage their adversaries, without employing any unjust advantage. Having thus fulfilled the conditions of entrance, the athletes repaired to the opposite end of the stadium, where they stripped to the skin and anointed their bodies with oil.

The games were not always the same, for originally, and until the 77th Olympiad, foot-racing was the only contest, but subsequently the list was increased until, as Pausanias relates, there were twenty-four, and in the 23d Olympiad chariot racing was introduced. For this purpose a hippodrome was established covering a distance of 1200 feet in length by 400 feet in breadth, the circuit of which had to be traversed twelve times. At one end of the course was a stone pillar called the *goal*, the turning of which was attended with such extreme peril that even the horses, as they swept around it in maddened pace shrank with terror, and thus increased the danger of upsetting the chariot.

But notwithstanding the hazard, so great were the honors conferred upon the victor, that even kings entered the arena and strove valiantly to win the glory from the plebeian contestants. In the time of Homer prizes of intrinsic value were given, but after the 6th Olympiad the rewards consisted of nothing more than a garland of wild olive. But there was said to be magic properties in such a crown, prepared as it was from branches cut with a golden sickle from a tree held sacred to Hercules. The wild olive was believed to have been brought to Greece, as Pindar relates, "from the dark fountains of Ister in the land of the Hyperboreans, to be a shelter common to all men, and a crown for noble deeds." To this belief concerning its introduction was naturally added faith in its potent virtues to render the wearer valorous, skilful and graceful, three attributes that were esteemed above all the other accomplishments that man could possess.

WOMEN AT THE GAMES.—REWARDS TO THE VICTOR.

Another feature prominent in these exhibitions of athletic skill, strength and mastery, is observed in the conditions which regulated the attendance. No matron, whether married or widowed, was permitted to witness the games, and violation of the prohibition was punishable under the law by death. But while matrons were rigorously excluded, marriageable girls, between the ages of fifteen and twenty, were specially encouraged to witness the games, though it is hardly probable that anything more than permission was necessary to secure their attendance. The object of thus inviting young ladies to the contests is not difficult to surmise, since their presence has never failed, in any age of the world, to stimulate to their utmost exertion men who engage in a public exhibition of their strength, skill and courage.

The victor of these contests, while receiving no intrinsic rewards from the state, was nevertheless remembered with costly gifts from friends, in addition to the unexampled honors which the government conferred upon him. When the victory was gained a trumpet blast was the signal, after which a herald announced the successful contestant's name, parentage and place of nativity. The president of the council of judges then crowned him and placed a palm branch in his hand. The victor, amid a deafening applause of the multitude, next proceeded to the temple of Zeus, walking upon banks of flowers strewn in his way, and picking up costly gifts that were thrown before him by his admirers. Gaining the temple, songs in which his name was often repeated were sung, and having entered his name in the record kept for the purpose, he became canonized in the Greek Calendar.

But the honors accorded the victor at Olympia were only a precursor of others more substantial to be bestowed upon him after his return home. In many cases princely pensions were granted by the town which had the glory of being his birthplace. Poets sang his praise, sculptors embalmed him in marble, altars were built, and sacrifices offered to him thereon as a god.

No emperor, in all the magnificence of his royal estates, and the unlimited extent of his power among men, any more than the triumphant general returning with his captives and trains, laden with richest spoils, could command such honors as were bestowed by the populace upon the victorious athlete.

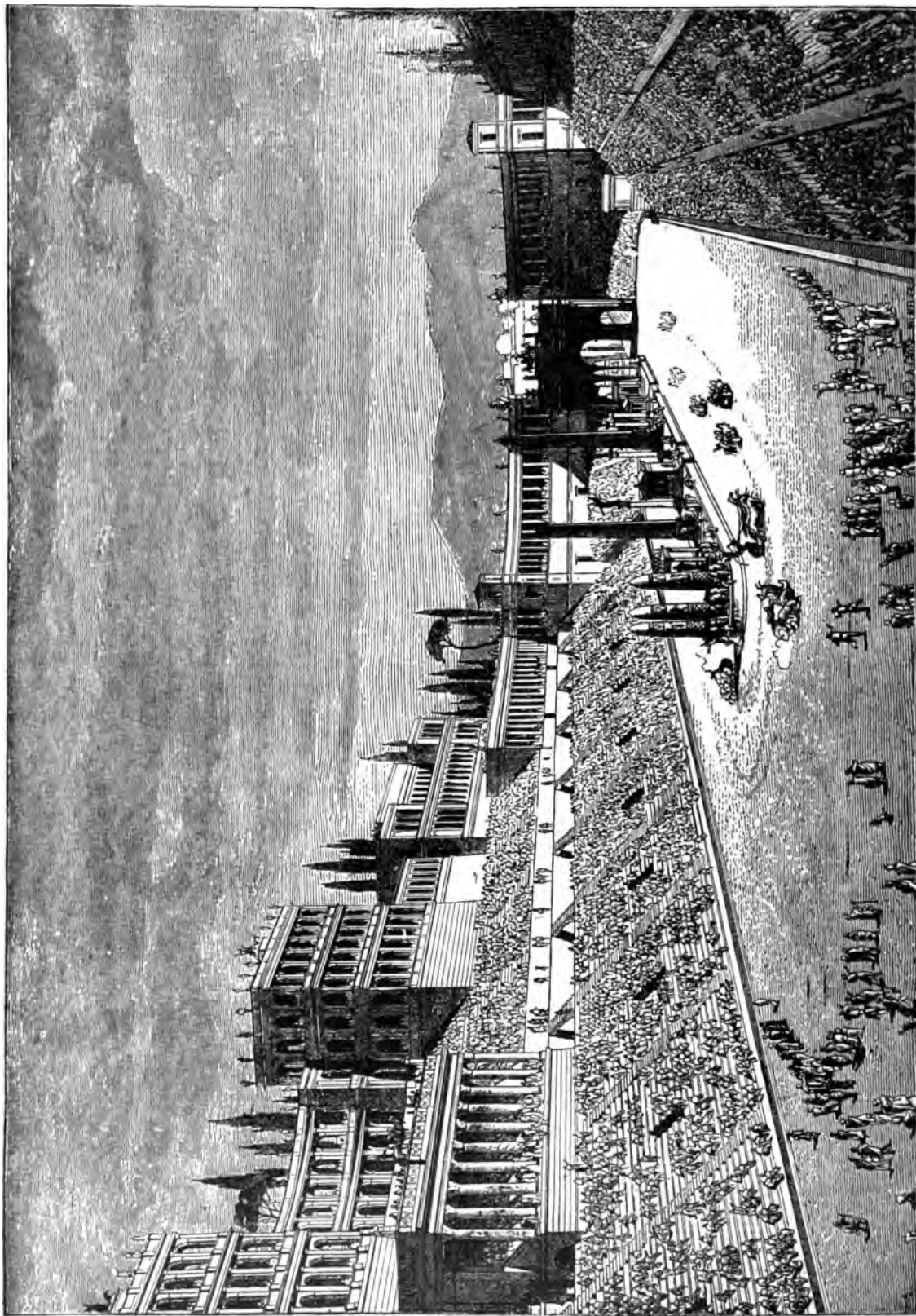
The Pythian games, founded about six hundred years before Christ, were originally musical festivals celebrated in honor of the Delphic God; but latterly they partook of the character which distinguished the Olympian exhibitions, differing from them only by adding to the athletic contests poetical and musical competitions.

The Nemean games, so called from the groves in which they took place, were little more than military reviews at first, instituted in commemoration of the destruction of the Nemean lion by Hercules. They were afterwards changed to a celebration in honor of Zeus, and opened to all Greek contestants in horse-racing, throwing, boxing, archery and music. So highly were they esteemed by the populace that Philip of Macedon gratefully accepted the honorable presidency of the games, at which he regularly presided, clothed in all the magnificence of his royal estate.

The Isthmian Games took their name from the Isthmus of Corinth, where they were celebrated in the spring of every alternate year. Their origin, like the others, was in a pleasing fable, to this effect: A certain king known as Athamas married a second wife named Ino, by whom he had a son called Melicertes. The king conceived such a jealousy for his wife that he pursued her with murderous intent, which she only escaped by leaping into the sea with her child. Neptune at an auspicious moment came to their rescue, and to preserve their lives from drowning he changed them into sea-deities. In commemoration of this good deed the Isthmian games were founded in honor of Neptune. In nearly all respects they were identical with those of the Olympic and Nemean, but were afterwards participated in by the Romans, who added fights with wild beasts, and gladiatorial combats.

ROMAN FESTIVALS AND BLOODY SHOWS.

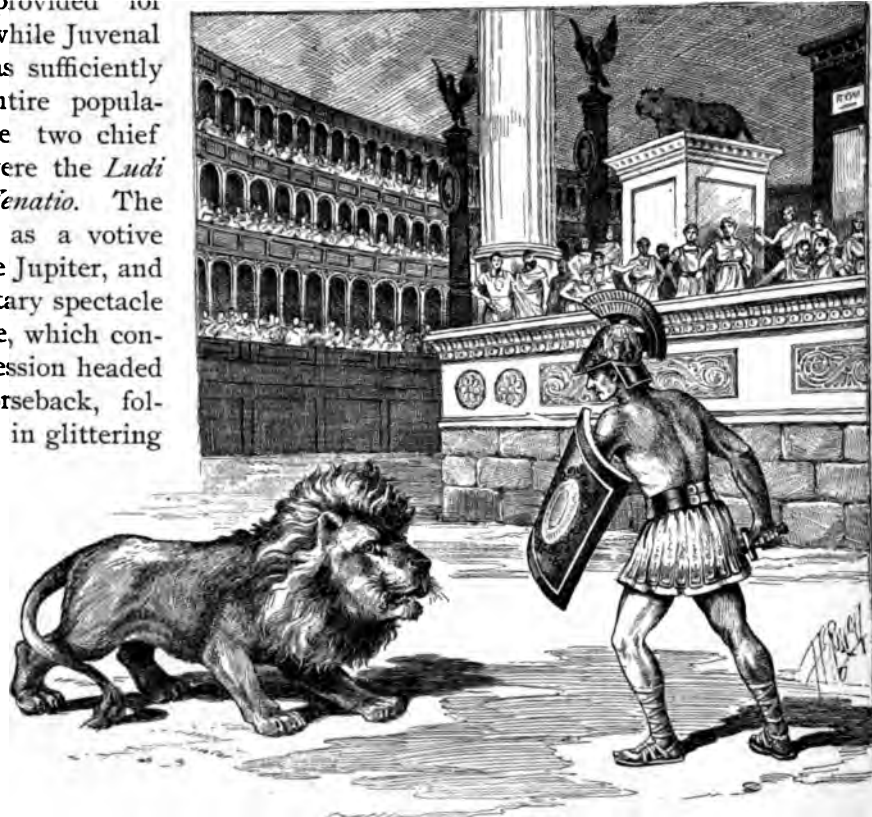
The difference between the civilization of the Greeks and the Romans is nowhere more strongly contrasted, to the advantage of the former, than in their public exhibitions. Among the Greeks there was much refinement, and their shows were made to appeal to the best instincts of the people, with the design to elevate and ennoble the aspirations of those who became spectators. On the other hand, with the Romans the intent was always to pander to the grosser passions, with the view of rendering the people more disposed towards



THE RACE COURSE IN THE CIRCUS MAXIMUS.

war, and to blunt the natural sense of mercy. Among both nations their games were intimately connected with religion, but their conceptions of the spiritual were very dissimilar, though both were mythological. With the Greeks athletic contests were a stimulant to physical skill directed by wise purpose; while with the Romans they became wild, reckless, unbridled scenes of brute courage, in which none but the ignoble participated to amuse the patrician class. While one celebrated the noble act of some deity, the other was made to commemorate the bloody deeds of some tyrant and despoiler. The expense of one was borne by the rich; of the other the cost was too great for individuals to bear, and thus we learn that the Cæsars squandered the revenues of whole provinces to provide amusement for the barbarous mob.

The principal exhibitions were held each year in the Circus Maximus, where, we are told, seats were provided for 350,000 spectators; while Juvenal assures us that it was sufficiently large to hold the entire population of Rome. The two chief festivals, or fairs, were the *Ludi Maximi* and the *Venatio*. The first was instituted as a votive feast to the Capitoline Jupiter, and was begun by a military spectacle of great magnificence, which consisted of a grand procession headed by patricians on horseback, followed by a vast army in glittering corselets, bearing their spears, short swords, and brightly-burnished bucklers. Behind the soldiers marched a great number of burghers, from the various Roman provinces, and these in turn were followed by the athletes, who were naked, except for a narrow girdle that encircled the loins. Next came the dancers, harpers and flute-players, and, lastly, the solemn priests who carried censers and images of the gods. The procession moved through the streets to the circus where the games were performed, consisting of chariot-racing, military manœuvres, and gymnastic contests. But the chief interest centred in the chariot race, which was run fourteen times around the course, making a distance of five miles. The drivers were professionals, and were distinguishable, one from the other, by the different colors of their tunics, whence is derived the custom of dressing jockeys in modern horse-races. While the spectacle of a furious drive round the hippodrome was intensely exciting, the interest was heightened by the wagers which



CRIMINAL FIGHTING WITH A HUNGRY LION.

were laid, and the factions into which the betters were divided. The races were, therefore, little more than gambling exhibitions, which sometimes terminated in dreadful fights, in which the loss of life was very great. In one of these battles between rival factions, 30,000 people lost their lives.

SLAUGHTER OF WILD ANIMALS.

The *Venatio*, or hunting-show, was a more shameful spectacle, which generally took place in the amphitheatre, and at first was a rather tame though brutalizing exhibition, in which hunters, called *bestarii*, dispatched such wild animals as deer, bears, wolves, and occasionally lions, without incurring any great risk themselves. But the thirst for bloody sports was not long satisfied with such shows, and the craving for more desperate, daring and murderous spectacles grew apace until gladiatorial combats became at length a rage. From hunting scenes there next succeeded animal-baiting, in which lions, tigers, elephants, and even crocodiles, were made to fight for the amusement of the spectators, and soon after the introduction of this sport captives and criminals were forced into the amphitheatre, and made to fight with ravening beasts. Those who were thus condemned to battle, to gratify the perverted desires of the barbarous multitude, were allowed no other weapons than a short sword and shield, with which they received the animals that had been starved into an unnatural ferocity. The extent of these astounding exhibitions may be gained from statements of reliable historians, who represent that on one occasion no less than 700 lions and many elephants were matched with a company of Gætulian hunters. The opening of the Colosseum (A. D. 80) was celebrated by the slaughter of 9000 beasts, more than half of which were of the most ferocious kind, while Trajan's victory over the Dacians, in the year 106, was commemorated by four months of continuous battle in the arena, during which 11,000 animals were killed, and 9000 gladiators fought to the death. To avoid a very sea of blood which such slaughter would turn loose, the arena was strewn with sand, but, to exhibit their amazing prodigality, some of the emperors are said to have substituted a precious powder, mingled with gold-dust, for sand, believing it to be a better absorbent.

The Roman Colosseum, in which the greatest shows were given, was built in the shape of an ellipse, being 616 feet in its greatest diameter, and 510 in its lesser, while the arena measured 280 by 175 feet. Prior to the erection of the Colosseum, which was chiefly of stone, the games were celebrated in wooden structures, the dimensions of which, no doubt considerably exceeded those of the more famous building, with whose ruins we are so familiar. On a very great occasion, as we are told, a wooden edifice of this kind collapsed from the weight of the thousands that occupied it, and in the catastrophe no less than 50,000 people were crushed to death. It was this accident that caused the Roman Emperor Vespasian to construct the Colosseum of stone, which, however, he did not live to see finished, but left its completion to his son Titus. In this gigantic structure, covering five acres of ground, and seating 100,000 people, were enacted such scenes of carnage that nowhere in the world's history is to be found anything to compare with them.

GLADIATORIAL FIGHTS AND MASSACRE OF CHRISTIANS.

Wild animals were frequently baited within the walls of the Colosseum, but combats between gladiators directly superseded all other sports, and the amphitheatre was more than a hundred times drenched with the blood of a thousand victims. Rome took captives from among the peoples of every clime then known, and only removed their fetters to give them introduction to the slaughter-pen, where others met them in the gage of butchery, to please

the appetite of Roman crowds. Within its arena, too, thousands of Christians were given over as spoil to hungry beasts, St. Ignatius being first to suffer martyrdom within the jaws of a starving lion. And who were the spectators? Why, the emperor, senators, magistrates, *vestal virgins*, members of the principal guilds, and in short both the great and the ignoble watched with ravished eyes men pierced to the heart in the deadly combat; wives, children, and captives thrown into the enclosure to break the famine of wild animals; and in the red glare of human torches, swathed in pitch and flax, the fiendish throng saw the sardonic smile that played about the sensual lips of the persecuting emperor, and strained their ears to catch the last cries of expiring victims.

So infatuated were the Romans with these murderous exhibitions that we have accounts of no less than fifty-two colossal amphitheatres, scattered through the several Roman provinces, and devoted exclusively to these bloody shows. Julius Cæsar has the credit, along with his other deeds that give him a sanguinary renown, of introducing bull-fighting, which strangely enough is the only one of the many cruel sports to which the Romans were once so fondly devoted, that survives in christianized lands.

MARTYRDOM OF A HUMANE MONK.

Succeeding the conquest of Greece these brutalizing spectacles were occasionally seen in Athens, but the more refined tastes of the Greeks prevented them from ever becoming popular. After the Christian religion gained such strength among the Romans that Emperor Constantine embraced the tenets of the faith, the bloody games became less frequent, but even that zealous emperor could not wholly abolish them, though many edicts with that intent were promulgated. It was reserved for a pious monk to sacrifice his life in a supreme effort to secure their abolition, the story being told by Theodoret, to this effect: In the year 404 A. D., Telemachus, living somewhere in the far east, having heard of the degrading and barbaric sports of the Romans, resolved upon an attempt to bring about their prohibition. To this end he made a journey to Rome, in the costume of his order and without attendants, bent upon his sacred mission. It chanced that he arrived at the imperial city on a festival day, which was being commemorated by the usual gladiatorial combats in the Colosseum. Repairing to the place where the cruel sports were in progress, he impetuously



DUEL OF GLADIATORS.

rushed into the arena and endeavored to separate the combatants. But alas, for his pious zeal and sympathy, he had no other reward than the gratitude of after times, for the Prætor, offended at the interference with his own delights, ordered the guards to instantly despatch the humane monk, whose blood was made to mingle with others that had on that memorable day been slain in the arena.

But Telemachus had not died in vain, for besotted as the Romans were with their pleasure in bloody amusements, yet there was some humanity in their hearts though it was stagnant. The execution of the monk, however, stirred it into an active fountain of tempered mercy, and an edict of Honorius abolishing the games was immediately promulgated and, strangely enough, was respected, so that the death of Telemachus was the occasion of their last celebration.

But by this time both Greek and Rome had grown out of the conditions that made such savage exhibitions a part of the age. Under the old mythology of Rome, and the position she had gained, and was able to hold only by force of arms and a cultivation of the military spirit, the bloodiest exhibitions were approved as lending patriotic incitement to the manhood upon which the nation depended. But Christianity had by this time spread its influence like a gentle and refreshing dew over the countries of the Levant and the savage disposition of man was dissolving under the rays of this sun of peace and love. Preparation for the inevitable change had thus been made, though it was not recognized until the tragic episode of Telemachus' martyrdom gave emphasis to the insinuating, but all prevading fact.

From the time of the abolition of the Colosseum exhibitions Rome dates her new life; the military spirit slowly gave place to the arts of peace. Her life was henceforth to find sustenance in commerce instead of in blood. The great building which was the scene of so many bloody triumphs fell into disuse, and now its crumbling walls, a skeleton of what was once the glory of Rome, remain like a spectre pointing backward to an age that was red with savagery, to the Rome of the Cæsars, the Neros and the Vespasians.



CHAPTER II.

GREAT FAIRS OF MODERN TIMES.



THE earliest ages of the world, religion engaged a larger part of man's attentions and ambitions. So great was this attachment, so zealous and all-pervading this superstition, that in the belief of early man the world, as well as heaven, was peopled by innumerable gods to whom reverence was exhibited chiefly by a desire to propitiate, and propitiation was best accomplished by honoring the deities. Thus, as already explained, came the observance of certain days set apart as sacred to their respective gods, and out of this custom of honoring the gods grew the national religious festivals, some of which survive even to this day.

But ambition being as boundless as space itself, men were not content to be bound entirely unto subserviency to the spiritual, for their gods were the personification of power, and this power over their fellows, ambitious men themselves sought to acquire. Thence proceeded wars, until nation was against nation with no higher motive than acquisition of territory, and extension of authority. Living therefore by war, the entire training of peoples so engaged was in that line which promised early graduation in accomplishments of the warrior. The county fair, the province festival, the National Exposition, were all alike, save in magnitude, a display of prowess, courage, skill in fight, and athletic sports. The poetry of such peoples was always of an epic style, their songs were praises of heroic deeds, and even their domestic life was suggestive of the inborn ambition to engage in conflict.

As it is the fortune of mankind to be ever restless and aspiring, these characteristics have prevented stagnation, or the continuance of a peaceful and uneventful existence for any length of time. And as the movement is ever forward in pursuit of nobler ideals, we note a constant improvement and substantial progress towards beneficent ends. Invention has marvellously stimulated nations, no less than individuals, and to this good genius the world is indebted for dispelling the stygian darkness in which groped the twin brothers, ignorance and superstition, and by the lamp of investigation and discovery is being revealed the glorious transformations which are constantly occurring throughout civilization. In these benignant changes the warrior has been metamorphosed into mechanic, agriculturist, merchant; and the engines of war have been converted into implements of commerce; and the march is unimpeded by mountain or sea; forward, forward, without bugle blast or tap of drum, but keeping time to the throbs of hearts filled with the ambition of a higher destiny, the human race sets its face hopefully towards the future, in anticipation of yet more glorious realization.

HISTORY OF THE EARLIEST FAIRS.

The word Fair is derived from the Latin *ferie*, signifying a holiday, though its meaning when first used was the same as it is to-day. That the custom and term are ancient there is

further proof than the mere fact of its being so indicated by a Latin derivative. The Greeks were first to hold fairs shortly after the beginning of the Christian era, which was directly borrowed by the Romans and became a term that applied to the union of festival and fair, because the celebration occurred during the period of some Saint's feast, and was commonly held either in a church or church yard. This connection is another evidence supporting the assertion that the fair is the modern development of the festival.

Considering the *fair* as a market where goods are put on display for sale or in competition, the first was held in Britain as early as 207 A. D. In France, the first fair was held in



A TILTING TOURNAMENT IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

the year 427, its purpose, however, being more to bring the people together, for political reasons, than with the intent of inaugurating an exchange or sale of fabrics. Two hundred years later Dagobert, King of the Franks, gave the monks of St. Dennis permission to hold a church fair "for the glory of God, and the honor of St. Deny's at his festival," wherein we perceive the origin of those church festivals which continue so popular to this day, for raising funds with which to push the scheme of salvation.

Not only did the fair become a prominent institution in France directly after its inauguration, but other countries were not slow to realize the advantage of such shows, and accordingly Italy, Germany, Flanders and England quickly followed the example. Alfred the Great introduced annual fairs in England in 886, but it was not until 1133, under Wil-

liam the Conqueror, that they became popular. At nearly all the early fairs slaves were publicly sold, and constituted the prime article of exchange, until an abolition of the inhuman practice was secured in France through the long and unremitting efforts of a wealthy woman named Bathilda, who had once been a slave, but who escaped bondage through her beauty and marriage to her master.

GREAT FAIRS IN THE FAR EAST.

By fairs the international spirit was fostered and commerce immensely stimulated. Governments gave them charters, and regulated them by such laws as in time eliminated the coarse features which for the first several centuries distinguished them. The jester, gambler, buffoon, dancers and ribald singers were removed by acts of inhibition, and in their stead flocks of sheep, herds of cattle, and droves of horses were placed on exhibition to encourage agriculture, which all countries presently came to regard as the basis of their wealth.

Though France and England were first to introduce the fair as a civilizing institution among modern nations, their exhibitions really rank very much below the fairs of Russia, India, and even Arabia.

An annual fair is held at Nijni Novgorod, on the Volga, which has an average attendance of three hundred thousand, while the aggregate sale of articles is estimated at one hundred million dollars. In India the largest fair is held at Hurdwar, on the Upper Ganges, which is attended every year by three hundred thousand to four hundred thousand persons, while every twelfth year, during the special pilgrimage to the sacred river, the number of visitors is more than two millions.



HORTICULTURAL BUILDING.

A great fair is held at Mecca during the time of the annual pilgrimage, which in former times drew a half million people, but Arabians are hardly so devoted to their religion as formerly, and the number of pilgrims and visitors is less every year, until the attendance now is hardly more than two hundred thousand ; but a vast amount of trading is still done in the purchase of spices, coffee, and fabrics of Arabian workmanship.

GREAT INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITIONS.

In America the first distinctively competitive fair, held for the encouragement of the agricultural and mechanical arts, was opened in 1829 by the American Institute in New York. Fairs of a similar character were likewise instituted in Cincinnati, Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo and San Francisco, but they failed to arouse the interest that was expected, and after a few fitful efforts the fairs were discontinued in all the cities except New York, where the American Institute continued the undertaking, and the success of these efforts gave creation to an idea which was elaborated into a great national exhibition in 1853, as will be presently described. A very dim and uncertain remembrance is preserved in very

brief historical references, very seldom seen, of a colonial fair being held in New York in 1790; but it was more a celebration of the adoption of the constitution, and the laying of a foundation-stone for the national temple of liberty, than an exposition, and may not therefore be justly entitled to rank among the earliest fairs.

The inauguration of what may be called a National Exposition must be credited to France, and the idea to Napoleon, who in 1798 directed a series of National Exhibitions, and offered gold medals for inventions and productions that promised the strongest rivalry to the English trade. The plan of the exposition, however, was somewhat crude and on a comparatively small scale, and the benefits were correspondingly inconsiderable. A second and larger French exhibition took place in 1801, the benefits of which were so satisfactory that a third was projected in the following year, and thereafter they continued regularly through the years 1806, 1819, 1823, 1827, 1830, 1839, 1844, and 1849, the last being the most successful of the series, at which there were four thousand four hundred and ninety-four exhibitors, and an attendance estimated at something more than one million.

The first National Exposition held in Austria opened at Vienna in 1820, followed by



WOMAN'S BUILDING.

others in 1835-39 and 1845, and all with pronounced success. In Germany there were similar expositions in 1822 and '27 and '44, and a steady increase of exhibitors was observed at each exhibition. In Saxony the first National Fair was held in 1824 and continued at intervals of about two years until 1845, when there were six thousand exhibitors and nearly two million visitors.

The success which had attended these several ex-

positions in three nations stimulated other countries, and fairs national in their character were held in great number throughout Europe in 1827 to 1855. Notwithstanding the great interest manifested by the continental countries, Great Britain continued to exhibit not only apparent apathy, but showed a decided prejudice against exhibitions, believing that they were of no value commensurate with the cost to the country and the exhibitors. This idea, however, was gained from an unsuccessful fair which was held under the patronage of King George the First in 1828, and which was prolonged until 1833 through persistent but unavailing effort to make it a success. In Ireland such expositions met with considerable favor, being inaugurated by the Royal Society of Dublin, which held them triennially from 1829 until 1845, with decided advantage both to the public and exhibitors. In 1849 a National Exposition was held in Covent Garden, London, which achieved a measurable success, though the exhibits were confined exclusively to articles of British manufacture. The prejudice which England for a considerable while manifested towards National Expositions finally gave way before the manifest results achieved in other countries, and in 1849 a royal commission was issued to take steps for the organization of an International Exposition. At this time Prince Albert

occupied the most prominent place of any individual in the English nation, for which reason he was put at the head of the commission, and so industriously did he labor to bring about the best results that to his individual efforts may be credited the first World's Fair held in London in 1851. This pioneer of International Industrial Expositions was started upon its career at a cost of \$1,500,000, and the space occupied was about 21 acres in Hyde Park, where a magnificent crystal palace was built for the exhibitors. The exhibition was a pronounced success, and at its close the palace was transferred to Sydenham, where it still stands as a most magnificent example of English architecture in glass. The receipts at this first International Exposition amounted to more than \$2,500,000. The building popularly known as the Crystal Palace was built after the designs of Sir Joseph Paxton, and was composed entirely, except the flooring and joists, of glass and iron. It was 1851 feet long and 408 feet wide, with an extension on the north side of 936 feet by 48 feet. The height of the central portion was 64 feet, and the transept from the centre 108 feet; the entire area covered was 19 acres. The building was begun in September of 1850, and was completed the following February, at a cost of a little less than \$1,000,000. The Queen opened the exhibition in person with impressive ceremonies, and the exposition continued until October 11th, during which time there were more than 6,000,000 visitors, or an average daily attendance of about 43,500. The number of exhibitors has been placed at 17,000.

The success of the Crystal Palace Exposition stimulated Ireland to a display on even a grander scale. In pursuance of this ambition an International

Exposition was held in Dublin in 1853. The building in which this fair was held can in no sense be compared with that of the Crystal Palace; but in other respects, save alone its financial success, it proved to be a gratifying rival. The value of the contents of the Exposition was placed at about \$2,500,000, of which the fine arts exhibited represented more than one million, being the finest collection of pictures that had ever been gathered together in the world.

About the time of the London Exposition (1851) the idea was conceived by many New York capitalists of opening an international exposition in that city, their ambitious purpose being to produce a fair on a scale considerably greater than any that had been attempted by the nations of the Old World. In pursuance of this pretentious purpose, a company was incorporated in 1851. A lease was obtained of Reservoir Square for five years, rent free, the condition being imposed that the buildings erected thereon should be of glass and iron, and that the admission fee should not exceed fifty cents. As a further assistance to the fair managers, Congress passed an act constituting it a bonded warehouse into which foreign goods might be brought free of duty, thus relieving articles for exhibition from abroad from the payment of any tax. Having completed their organization, the company issued shares



MACHINERY HALL.

to the amount of \$300,000, which amount was presently increased to \$500,000, all of which was quickly subscribed. The building was a crystal palace in the form of a Greek cross, 365 feet long each way and 150 feet wide, with a central dome 123 feet high and 100 feet in diameter. But this first building being inadequate to the needs of the great number of exhibitors who applied for space, another building was erected for machinery, which was 450 feet long and 75 feet wide. On the 14th of July, 1853, the Exposition was opened by President Pierce, amid great demonstrations of pride and approval, and continued for a period of 119 days. The number of exhibitors was 4800, more than one-half of whom, singular to relate, were foreigners. It unfortunately happened that great delay had attended the erection of the buildings, so that the opening was deferred more than a year beyond the date originally set, so that it was in continuance during the Dublin Exhibition just described, which divided public interest with it. The location was also unfortunately chosen, being remote from the centre of the city, with no adequate means of access. The results were, therefore, what might reasonably have been anticipated, considering the disadvantages. The cost of the building was \$540,000, to which must be added an expense of \$100,000



ELECTRICAL BUILDING.

more for fitting and furnishing. The receipts for admission and all privileges did not exceed \$340,000. In an effort to retrieve the loss thus sustained, the Exhibition was reopened in 1854 and the year following, during which time an expenditure of \$200,000 additional was made which exhausted the capital, receipts and loans. But notwithstanding the efforts of the managers, the Exhibition, from a financial view, proved a

great disappointment. A decided benefit was derived, however, from the stimulus which it gave to American manufacturers in rivalling those of foreign countries whose products had thus been brought into competition. The building was leased to the American Institute and used for annual fairs until October, 1858, when it was burned with all its contents.

Another crystal palace was erected at Munich in 1854, which was almost twice as large as that in New York, but its cost was only \$450,000. Here a great International Exposition was held, which promised to achieve an unparalleled success, as there were sixty-eight hundred exhibitors, and the goods on display were valued at \$7,500,000. But at a time when the attendance was largest, cholera appeared, and caused such a general fright that the building was practically abandoned, and the Bavarian government was obliged to make up a deficiency of a million dollars.

The pronounced success of England's effort stimulated Paris to open an International Exposition upon her own grounds, that would surpass that of her great commercial rival. Accordingly, in 1855 there was opened in Paris an exposition, whose numerous buildings covered twenty-four and a half acres, the distinguishing feature of which was the Palais d'Industrie, in which were included works of every living artist. The management of the

Paris exhibition adopted the policy that had been pursued by the company that incorporated the New York World's Fair: Organizing a joint-stock company, shares were issued, and from the proceeds of the sale of these there was erected, in the Champs Elysees, a main building of glass, stone and brick, which was eight hundred feet long and three hundred and fifty feet wide. On adjacent ground were erected several smaller buildings for machinery and other heavy exhibits, such as carriages, agricultural implements, etc. The fair was opened by the Emperor Napoleon III in person on May 15th, and closed the November following, during which time there were four and a half million visitors, or a little more than two-thirds as many as had attended the London Exposition in 1851. The fair was a failure financially, but Paris derived a benefit from the money spent by foreign visitors, which more than compensated for the failure of the exposition itself.

The second London International Exposition was started in 1862 with a guarantee fund of two and a half millions, to which Prince Albert himself was a subscriber to the amount of \$50,000. The building erected for the purpose was of brick, glass and iron, covering 1,400,000 square feet, and was located at South Kensington. The exhibition continued 177 days, during which period there were 6,211,103 visitors, with a daily average of 36,329. The total expenditures were \$2,300,000, while the receipts from all sources were only \$2,240,000, the deficiency being due to the great cost of the building. It was afterwards torn down and the materials used in the construction of the Alexandrian palace, which was destroyed by fire in June, 1873.



ART PALACE.

The next International Exposition was held in Paris, in 1867, in an immense building erected for the purpose in the Champ de Mars. The arrangement of the building was in twelve concentric aisles, radiating from a small, central, open garden. The buildings covered thirty-seven acres, and the total number of exhibitors was 42,000. A pleasant feature of the display was actual examples of the styles of domestic and palatial architecture of most countries, including even the tents of such nomadic tribes as the Kirghis Tartars, Samoyeds, Bedouin Arabs, etc. The total cost of the exposition was \$8,000,000, and the returns from admissions and privileges were just barely sufficient to cover the expenses.

The next World's Fair following the Exposition Universelle, was held in Vienna in 1873, occupying forty acres of the Imperial Park with its magnificent building. This exposition was planned upon a scale of expenditures never before attempted, and the ambitious expectation was not only to surpass every previous national exposition, but to bring substantial benefits to the Austrian Empire, which at that time had reason to suspect the designs of Russia and Germany. But ambitious as was the purpose of the managers, the failure was all the more pronounced and lamentable.

The Viennese, desiring to improve the occasion to its utmost, raised living expenses in

the city to the most exorbitant rates and otherwise manifested such covetous dispositions that many thousands of people contemplating a visit to the exposition restrained their inclination after learning the situation. The result was that, while the exposition cost twelve millions of dollars, the receipts from all sources were barely three millions, thus leaving a deficit of nine millions, which precipitated a panic and caused severe monetary trouble throughout the Austrian Empire for more than a year.

As early as 1871 several public-spirited gentlemen of America conceived the idea of holding an exposition which should be commemorative of the achievement of American Independence, and when the idea reached the public prints, the nation seemed with one accord to offer the strongest commendation of the purpose, and the suggestion quickly crystallized into decisive action. It was directly determined that Philadelphia was the proper place at which the exposition should be held, and that the one hundredth anniversary of the adoption by the Colonial Congress, of the Declaration of Independence should be the date of the opening. But though there was universal accord in the patriotic, ambitious purpose, it was not until after nearly five years of active preparation that our Great Centennial Exposition was opened

by President Grant, on the 10th of May, 1876. The main building was in the form of a parallelogram, 1880 feet in length and in width 464 feet. Within the central span was a grand avenue 1832 feet long by 120 feet wide, a novelty which was never before introduced into any exhibition building.

The greater part of the building was a single story in height, but it was made



TRANSPORTATION BUILDING.

very imposing in appearance by being set within four square towers, each 120 feet high. This single building occupied a space of a fraction more than 20 acres, while the total area occupied by the 160 buildings in which the exposition was held was 60 acres. Among the several subsidiary buildings were Machinery Hall, Horticultural Hall, the latter built in the Moorish style, Agricultural Hall and the Art Gallery. This latter was constructed of stone, with the intention of making it a permanent memorial of the exposition. Besides these, there was a government building, covering two acres, in which an interesting exhibition was made of both the resources and war power of the nation. There was also a Woman's Pavilion and a Judges' Hall, and several curious small structures illustrative of the architecture of different nations in the Middle Centuries.

The buildings covered an area of sixty acres. The number of exhibitors was 30,864, and the total number of visitors was 9,910,966. The total cost was \$8,000,000, and the receipts were \$3,813,724. The opening continued for a period of 159 days. Among the exhibitors thirty-seven nations were represented, with exhibits valued at nearly \$50,000,000. The exposition was too large for an individual company to undertake, so that the incorporators called upon the government for a loan of \$1,500,000, and from the State of \$500,000.

The ambitious purpose of the promoters was realized, but the Exposition was not an entire success financially. Several Philadelphia capitalists, composing the incorporation, had pledged their credit to secure the government loan, and the receipts being insufficient to meet all expenses and the debt, they were forced to make good the money thus borrowed by paying it out of their private fortunes.

In 1878 another Exposition Universelle was opened in Paris by Marshal McMahon in the Champ de Mars. Notwithstanding the great failure of the Austrian exposition, Paris was resolved to outdo all previous attempts, with which intent enormous buildings were erected on both sides of the Seine, occupying fully 150 acres. These being insufficient, a second place was erected, called the Trocadero, which was built from the most elaborate designs, with gardens and cascades, and of such permanence and beauty that it remains to this day one of the chief sights of Paris. The cost of this exposition was about \$10,000,000, somewhat less than the Austrian exposition; but the money had been more wisely expended, and with much more gratifying results. Notwithstanding the immense outlay, the exposition was a pronounced financial success. It had an attendance of over 16,000,000.

In 1885 the French government began their preparations for a third Exposition Universelle. In August of that year, the Minister of Commerce was voted a credit of \$20,000, for the purpose of taking the preparatory steps, and obtaining such designs as would enable him to present to the assembly the project of carrying out the government's intention with regard to the proposed exposition. And in April following the Ministers, respectively, of Commerce, Industry, and Finance, presented a system of organization, with the concurrence and indorsement of the Society of Guaranty. Upon the submission of these preliminaries, the Municipal Council of Paris gave permission to use the Champ de Mars for the exposition, this being the same ground which had twice before been devoted to the identical purpose.



MINES AND MINING BUILDING.

It covered an extent of $75\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The amount estimated and provided for by the government in the city of Paris for the cost of the exposition was \$8,500,000, of which amount the government furnished \$3,500,000, the city of Paris \$1,500,000 and the Society of Guaranty \$4,000,000. Notwithstanding the expedition with which the plans were devised and adopted, and the necessary money voted, the buildings were projected upon such an elaborate scale that it required four years for their completion, at the end of which time, namely on the 6th of May, 1888, fully two months before the workmen were able to leave the buildings, the exposition was opened. The number of exhibitors was 55,000, the number of visitors 28,149,353. The exposition continued open for a period of 185 days, during which time the receipts from admission alone were something more than \$8,300,000, being nearly a million dollars in excess of the expenditures.

The next and latest World's Fair was held in Paris in 1889, as the centenary commemoration of the fall of the Bastille, and the Revolution; the largest preparations were made to make it the grandest observance that was ever celebrated by any nation. The project was born as early as June of 1883, and from the moment the proposal was first published the nation exerted herself to make the projected International Exhibition of 1889 the greatest success of modern times. To best carry into effect the ambitious purposes of the government and those who were the original promoters of the enterprise, a Guarantee Society was organized consisting of eighteen members, who acted in conjunction with a Board of Control composed of eight municipal councillors and seventeen senators, who raised a fund of \$3,600,000 and began the active work of preparation. The Government gave to the Guarantee Company the right to issue 30,000,000 tickets bearing the face value of one franc (20 cents) each, and besides this credit, authorized a lottery which issued 200,000 twenty-five franc interest-bearing bonds, which were convertible, at the option of the holders, into tickets, which were in return receivable as admissions to the Fair.

The site selected for the great exposition not only occupied the Champ de Mars, but also annexed the Trocadero and included the Esplanade des Invalides and the Quai d'Orsay, thus covering all the available space of the neighborhood, 173 acres in extent.

The original estimate for the buildings and grounds was \$6,500,000, but that this was a very liberal approximation of the cost is proved by the fact that the total expense fell short of that amount by nearly \$650,000.

The exhibition was opened by the President, M. Jules Grevy, on May 5th, 1889, and did not close until October 31st following. When the great fair was concluded, and an estimate of receipts and disbursements made, the final accounting showed that the grand total of expenses had been \$8,300,000, and the total receipts \$9,900,000, thus leaving the handsome balance of \$1,600,000 to represent the net profit that had been gained by the managers, in addition to the millions that had been reaped by the shop-keepers, hotels and many branches patronized by visitors.

The entrance fee was placed at the very low sum of one franc (20 cents) and it is probable that to this wise action on the part of the directors much of the phenomenal success of the Exhibition is due. The total number of admissions by tickets from May 6th to November 1st, was 28,149,353, and the daily average 137,289, an increase of nearly 18,000,000 over the attendance at the Philadelphia Centennial, and the exhibitors numbered 55,000, while at Philadelphia there were only 30,864.

Of the many remarkable exhibits made at the Paris Exposition, that of M. Garnier, who showed forty-four models of Human Habitations representing all ages from the time of primitive man, attracted greatest attention, but for wonder his exhibition was eclipsed by the Eiffel Tower, an obelisk or pillar of steel mounting to the extraordinary height of 984 feet. The base of this remarkable structure is four gigantic feet stretching over and forming an archway that rises to the first platform, a height of 185 feet, which is capable of accommodating 3500 visitors. Above this is a second platform 377 feet from the earth, where there is space for 1000 persons. Still above this is a third platform that provides room for 400 persons. At the extreme summit there is a chamber in which the electrical lighting and scientific instruments are kept, the top being reached by four elevators, each capable of carrying sixteen persons.

The tower cost \$1,000,000, one-fourth of which was voted as a subsidy by the government, and the weight is 16,800,000 pounds, yet the structure is so firmly anchored that its safety is absolutely secure.

CHAPTER III.

PURPOSES AND EFFECTS OF INTERNATIONAL FAIRS.



WE HAVE thus hastily noted the evolution of the Fair, and its final flowering into international industrial expositions, the eight principal ones being hastily sketched and the results recorded. We cannot fail to observe, even in this short summary of World's Fairs, that commercial rivalry is not less strong among nations than it is among individuals, and that ambition to excel, for honor as well as for substantial reward, possesses and animates the integer just as it does the fractional part of the political unit. The utilitarian spirit of the age is towards commercial gain, but while desire for greater riches is a confessedly powerful motive, the underlying ambition of nations that most largely prompts these displays is a sincere hope, crystallized in effort, to advance and improve the social condition, to educate, inspire, encourage; for in these ambitions only can national glory be attained.

Therefore the gladiator in the arena, the charioteer on the course, the athlete that measured paces with his adversary, was not more determined to win the victory, when valor was the test and war the occupation, than is the peace-loving artisan and the humble tiller of the earth, to-day covetous of the honors bestowed for supremacy in the field of art, invention and production. With this ruling aspiration animating nations as it does individuals, the observer pauses to reflect upon the possible results. These exhibitions of men's genius and industry are proving such a stimulus to human ambition that wonders, each more amazing than the one before, are being constantly revealed in an endless procession, drawing us onward at a rapid pace towards an end which is glorious beyond our anticipations.

To foster and stimulate this aspiration, to bring nations into closer contact, to extend commerce and promote industry, as well as to celebrate our achievements as the model republic, is no less the purpose of the Columbian Exposition than to commemorate the greatest event in history—the discovery of the New World,

ORIGIN OF THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

The first public proposal to observe our quadri-centennial by a World's Fair projected upon a scale grander than had characterized any previous effort, was made by a St. Louis paper as early as 1882, which by editorial urged immediate preparation for a national observance of the great event. From this source the river of public opinion gathered its flow and went on increasing until three years later there was a general determination to inaugurate a movement to carry into effect the very wise suggestion. Thus the mighty

stream of patriotic enthusiasm as we now view it, grew by a thousand affluents until public desire became expressed in legislative action, and a great sea of national resolution was the result.

Several cities, including Washington, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago and St. Louis, were contestants for the prize, each guaranteeing to raise \$5,000,000 to secure the success of the Exhibition, but Chicago was selected by joint resolution of Congress February 25th, 1890. From this date the work of preparation was actually begun by the incorporation of the World's Exposition of 1892. On April 25th the World's Columbian Commission was created by act of Congress, and the Nation was thus committed to its sponsorship. Subscriptions were now opened and the sum of \$5,467,350 was raised by the pledges of 29,374 persons who became subscribers to the stock; to which amount \$5,000,000 more was added by an issue of city bonds.

On the 24th of December, 1890, President Harrison issued his proclamation announcing that the Exposition would be opened on the 1st day of May, 1893, and not be closed until the last Thursday in October of the same year, and extended an invitation to all nations of the earth to participate in the commemoration by making exhibits of their products in rivalry with our own.

COST OF THE EXPOSITION.

The site selected as being best adapted for the exposition buildings is Jackson Park and Midway Plaisance, which together embrace 664 acres, and have a lake frontage of nearly a mile and a half. A considerable part



AGRICULTURAL BUILDING.

of the park required a great amount of filling in, and the dredging of water-ways through it, in which preparation a half million of dollars were spent, and nearly as much more was expended in landscape gardening, fountains, observation towers, statuary, etc.

These large expenditures were but the beginning, a very small fraction of the cost of the improvements that were necessary, as the following estimates show :

Grading, filling, etc., ...	\$ 450,000	Seating, ...	\$ 8,000
Landscape gardening, ...	323,490	Water supply, sewerage, etc., ...	600,000
Viaducts and bridges, ...	125,000	Improvement of lake front, ...	200,000
Piers, ...	70,000	World's Congress auxiliary, ...	200,000
Water-way improvements, ...	225,000	Construction Department expenses, ...	520,000
Railways, ...	500,000	Organization and administration, ...	3,308,563
Steam plant, ...	800,000	Operating expenses, ...	1,550,000
Electricity, ...	1,500,000		
Statuary on buildings, ...	100,000		
Vases, lamps and posts, ...	50,000		
			\$10,530,453

But to this estimate there remains to be added the cost of the several buildings, amount-

ing to \$8,000,000, and the expenditures by the Government, the several States and the foreign nations, which will be in the neighborhood of \$15,000,000 more.

The sizes of the buildings devoted to Exposition purposes are as follows :

Administration, ...	262x262	Machinery Pumping Works, ...	77x84
Manufactures and Liberal Arts, ...	787x1687	“ Machine Shop, ...	106x250
Mines and Mining, ...	350x700	Agriculture, ...	500x800
Electricity, ...	345x690	“ Annex, ...	300x550
Transportation, ...	256x960	“ Assembly Hall, ...	125x450
Transportation Annex, ...	425x900	Forestry, ...	208x528
Woman's, ...	196x388	Saw Mill, ...	125x300
Art Galleries, ...	320x500	Dairy, ...	100x200
“ “ Annexes (2), ...	120x200	Live Stock (2), ...	65x200
Fisheries, ...	165x365	“ “ Pavilion, ...	280x440
“ Annexes (2), ...	135 in diameter	“ “ Sheds, ...	to cover 40 acres
Horticulture, ...	250x998	Casino, ...	120x250
Horticulture Greenhouses (8), ...	24x100	Music Hall, ...	120x250
Machinery, ...	492x846	U. S. Government Building, ...	345x415
“ Annex, ...	490x550	Imitation Battle Ships, ...	69x348
“ Power House, ...	490x461	Illinois State Building, ...	160x450

The total space occupied by these several buildings is a fraction more than 159 acres.

But in addition to the above every State will have its own building, as will also the foreign nations. The contributions made for this purpose are as follows :

The United States and Territories, ... \$ 1,500,000

Following are the appropriations made for exhibits by the several States and Territories .

Arizona, ... \$	30,000	New Hampshire, ... \$	25,000
California, ...	300,000	New Jersey, ...	70,000
Colorado, ...	100,000	New Mexico, ...	25,000
Delaware, ...	10,000	New York, ...	300,000
Idaho, ...	20,000	North Carolina, ...	25,000
Illinois, ...	800,000	North Dakota, ...	25,000
Indiana, ...	75,000	Ohio, ...	125,000
Iowa, ...	130,000	Pennsylvania, ...	300,000
Kentucky, ...	100,000	Rhode Island, ...	50,000
Maine, ...	40,000	Vermont, ...	15,000
Maryland, ...	60,000	Virginia, ...	25,000
Massachusetts, ...	150,000	Washington, ...	100,000
Michigan, ...	100,000	West Virginia, ...	40,000
Minnesota, ...	50,000	Wisconsin, ...	65,000
Missouri, ...	150,000	Wyoming, ...	30,000
Montana, ...	50,000		
Nebraska, ...	50,000	Total of appropriations made, ...	\$3,435,000

Owing to constitutional restrictions nine States were unable to make appropriations, but that they may be properly represented organizations were formed and through stock subscriptions the following sums were raised :

Alabama, ... \$	50,000	Oregon, ... \$	50,000
Arkansas, ...	40,000	South Dakota, ...	80,000
Florida, ...	200,000	Texas, ...	300,000
Georgia, ...	100,000	Utah, ...	50,000
Kansas, ...	100,000		
Louisiana, ...	50,000	Total by stock subscriptions, ...	\$1,020,000

The following nations have voted appropriations for their respective exhibits :

Argentine Republic, ...	\$ 100,000	Guatemala, ...	\$120,000
Austria, ...	102,300	Hayti, ...	25,000
Barbadoes, ...	6,000	Honduras, ...	20,000
Belgium, ...	57,900	Jamaica, ...	25,000
Bermuda, ...	3,000	Japan, ...	630,765
Bolivia, ...	30,700	Leeward Islands, ...	6,000
Brazil, ...	600,000	Mexico, ...	50,000
British Guiana, ...	25,000	New South Wales, ...	150,000
British Honduras, ...	7,500	New Zealand, ...	27,500
Canada, ...	150,000	Nicaragua, ...	30,000
Cape Colony, ...	50,000	Norway, ...	56,280
Ceylon, ...	65,600	Orange Free State, ...	7,500
U. S. of Colombia, ...	100,000	Paraguay, ...	100,000
Costa Rica, ...	150,000	Peru, ...	140,000
Cuba, ...	25,000	Salvador, ...	12,500
Denmark, ...	67,000	Sweden, ...	53,600
Dutch Guiana, ...	10,000	Tasmania, ...	10,000
Dutch West Indies, ...	5,000	Trinidad, ...	15,000
Ecuador, ...	125,000	Uruguay, ...	24,000
France, ...	627,250	Victoria, ...	100,000
Germany, ...	690,200		
Great Britain, ...	291,990	Total of appropriations of foreign	
Greece, ...	60,000	countries	\$4,952,585

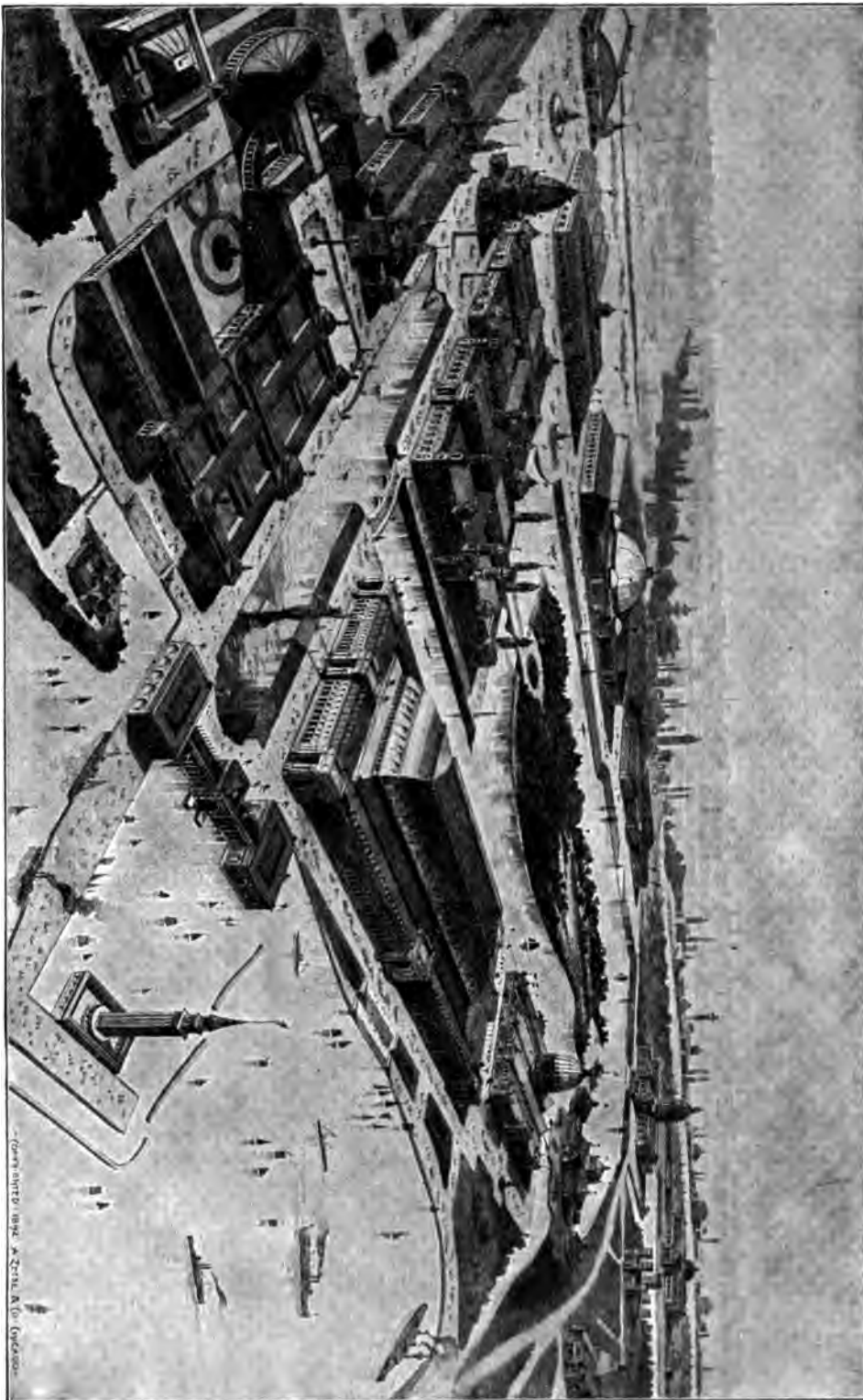
The following countries have signified their intentions to participate in the Exposition, but no appropriation has been made for the purpose. Each, however, will have exhibits, chiefly made by individual enterprise, and the amounts expended by each will be relatively large :

Algeria,	India,	Netherlands,	Servia,
British Columbia,	Italy,	Newfoundland,	Siam,
Bulgaria,	Corea,	Persia,	South Australia,
Chili,	Liberia,	Porto Rico,	Spain,
China,	Madagascar,	Province of Quebec,	Switzerland,
Danish West Indies,	Madeira,	Queensland,	Transvaal,
Egypt,	Malta,	Roumania,	Turkey,
Erythria (of Asia Minor),	Mashonaland,	Russia,	Venezuela,
French Guinea,	Mauritius,	San Domingo,	West Australia.
Hawaii,			

WONDERS OF THE EXPOSITION.

While the Paris Exposition of 1889 had for its principal curiosity and largest attraction the Eiffel Tower, the Columbian Fair will have a dozen or more mammoth wonders to excite the profound astonishment of visitors. Among these may be mentioned three towers whose summits rise to a height of 300 feet, and will accommodate 100 people at one time. The country being level, a better view and wider range of vision can be had from the top of these than could be obtained from the loftiest platform of Eiffel Tower. But besides towering structures, other means are afforded of surveying an expanding stretch of landscape from high eminences, for several captive balloons will rise, with their loads of venturesome sightseers, to an altitude of more than 1,000 feet, while the roofs of twenty-storied buildings, reached by swift elevators, are numerous in Chicago, and from these a nearer view of the heavens, and the fading perspective of lake and prairie may be gained.

Wonder upon wonder, however, will appear to the admiring gaze of the visitor, who will at last conclude that all the marvels of the world, and the products of all the master geniuses in art and invention, are gathered there to delight and instruct—a very panorama of the possibilities of human ingenuity and persistent effort. But not only is the visitor



BIRD'S EYE VIEW OF THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION GROUNDS.

entertained by exhibitions which mark the attainments of the century, for on every side he beholds things which connect the present with memorable events of the past. On a point jutting into the lake he perceives a quaint old convent smiling at the waters under its feet. It is a reproduction of the monastery of La Rabida, where good father Perez received Columbus and little Diego, and, supplying them with food, also nourished the ambition that found its fruition in the discovery of the new world. There it is, the very reality, and below are the estuary of Palos, the flowing Odiel, and the beating sea. Everything seemingly save the great navigator, his pious counsellor, and the physician, Hernandez, the trio to whose memory America owes more than the nation can ever pay.

But there are other reminders no less voiceful with the story of Columbus, for there we may see the counterpart presentment of the Santa Maria, the Nina, and the Pinta—the three little vessels that bore the first navigators across the waters of a boundless sea. Every detail is true, every sail, mast, anchor, timber, and rigging, is identical with the original; and thus 400 years after their momentous voyage, we are able to inspect fac-similes of the caravels, and form a correct estimate of the courage which Columbus must have possessed, and the mighty strength of his concept and aspiration.

Some of the hundreds of other attractions, apart from the Exposition proper, may be thus briefly described:

EXHIBITIONS THAT WILL ASTONISH VISITORS.

On the lakes will be gondolas, electric launches, and a great variety of novel crafts propelled by various kinds of motors, which will embrace all the late inventions in propulsion of the age. Cycloramas and panoramas afford striking views of historic incidents, and from one diorama the whole moving mass of visitors, and every building and lake within the grounds, may be witnessed with wonderful realism on canvass.

One of the features of the Paris International Exposition was a reproduction of a street in Cairo. This also constitutes an attraction at the Columbian Fair, but amplified to such a degree that a section of the great Egyptian city will be shown, including its fantastic bazaars, overhanging houses, quaint cafés, turbaned men, and veiled women, demure donkeys, camel drivers, and, in short, all the characteristic features that combine to make Cairo the most curious city of the world. Besides this are related exhibits, such as Turkish bazaars, in imitation of those so plentiful in Constantinople, with all their attendant curiosities. There is also a Moorish palace, exhibiting the rich coloring and beautiful architectural marvels which survive only in such buildings as the Alhambra of Grenada.

Even the South Sea Islands are made to contribute their curiosities to the great Fair, and exhibits will be made of the Oceanic peoples and their habitations, as well as their war and domestic utensils, so that the visitor may see life as it exists among our antipodeans.

The Swiss Government, in addition to its other exhibits of remarkable interest, has provided a panorama of the Bernese Alps, which constitutes an attraction at once awesome and picturesque.

To view the wonders that have been here gathered together from every corner of the earth, it will not be necessary, as it has been at all previous world's fairs, to walk, or be trundled, at large expense, from place to place, until exhaustion compels the visitor to retire, for invention has devised a means for viewing the Exposition from elevated railways. An hydraulic sliding railway runs the entire length of Midway Plaisance, and a moving sidewalk is operated around the grounds, by either of which visitors, while seated in comfort, are carried around in a sinuous course at an elevation of twenty-five feet, with a

speed little faster than a walk, and afforded the opportunity of seeing all the open-air exhibits in the most advantageous and satisfactory manner. Twenty thousand people an hour can be thus conveyed around the Exposition grounds.

The United States Government Building, 350 x 420 feet, and costing \$400,000, contains many wonderful things to excite the amazement and pride of all Americans. The space of this gigantic structure has been allotted in this wise: Department of the Treasury, 10,500 square feet; War, 23,000 square feet; Post Office, 9,000 square feet; Fishery, 20,000 square feet; Agriculture, 23,250 square feet; Interior, 24,000 square feet, and Smithsonian Institute, 37,250 square feet.

In the Treasury Department will be exhibits prepared by the Bureau of Printing and Engraving, showing how our paper money is printed; the Bureau of Statistics; the Light-house Board; the Life Saving and Signal Service Boards, and the Marine Hospital. But besides these, there will be a remarkable exhibit by the Coast Survey, including a topographical map of the United States 400 feet square. This map is made of plaster-paris, and built on a scale which shows the exact height of mountains, extent of plains, length of rivers, size of lakes, and the curvature of the earth. Galleries and elevated pathways give opportunity to visitors of walking over this miniature of the United States and reviewing every part of it critically.

MODEL OF A FULL-SIZED BATTLE SHIP.

The Naval Department could not conveniently confine its exhibit indoors without injustice to that important branch of the Government. Carrying out the ambition of the head of that department, there is exhibited a full-sized model of the newest coast-line battle ship, which is erected on piling, by the Lake front, surrounded by water, and having every appearance of being moored to the dock. The ship is complete in all its details for perfectly imitating the most effective of our war vessels, being equipped with guns, turrets, torpedo-tubes and nets, boats, anchors, cables, etc., and all the fittings for actual service. Not only is the ship and paraphernalia thus shown, but there is a detail of officers and men, composing a full complement, who are on duty, and give daily drills in operating the guns, torpedoes, and the manual of arms. The dimensions of the model are the same as those of our largest battle ship, viz.: length, 348 feet; breast width, 69 feet 3 inches; height of main deck above water-line, 12 feet; while above the main deck are the bridges, chart house, and look-out.

Another grand feature of the Exposition is the World's Auxiliary Congress, organized to take care of a series of conventions intended to bring together the great leaders of the world, for the purpose of mutual council in matters calculated to advance the best interests of mankind, such as science, philosophy, education, literature, music, art, government, law reform, medicine, commerce, religion, temperance, labor, engineering, and agriculture. In this commendable undertaking women have an equal part and representation with men, and the distinguished leaders of both sexes will deliver addresses before the conventions, and thus give the world the benefit of their knowledge.

What may be named as an adjunct to this effort to promote human progress is the Permanent Memorial Art Palace, a building divided into two immense audience chambers, each having a seating capacity of 3,500 persons, and with twenty smaller rooms on the side designed for the use of committees. In these large auditoriums the great essayists, statesmen, financiers, political economists, journalists, agriculturists, and, in short, leaders in all the various departments of human affairs, will discourse on the subjects which they are respectively best qualified to discuss. The papers and speeches thus delivered will be

preserved in a publication which promises to be of the greatest value to all mankind, and will constitute the most useful memorial of all International Expositions in the world's history.

A MARVELLOUS PYROTECHNIC EXHIBITION.

The display of fireworks which will be made on the evenings of October 11th, 12th and 13th will exceed in grandeur anything ever before seen in the history of the world, and will constitute a two hours' exhibition on the night of these dates that will well repay the discomforts and expense of thousands of miles of travel. Words can give no adequate idea of the inconceivable beauty and magnificence of these fiery demonstrations which, will in fact pale the starry splendors of the heavens.

The display on each evening will be begun by the discharge of 100 bombs, which being sent to a great height explode in the sky with the deafening detonations of a battery of heavy guns. Following this prelude will be a flash from 500 prismatic lights, so stationed that a magical illumination of the waters and grounds is produced, almost blinding by its exceeding brilliancy, but fairly transporting by its extraordinary splendor. Several such astonishing effects will be shown to claim the fascinated interest of visitors, but besides these a large number of set pieces will be fired which deserve to be specially mentioned.

The largest piece will be a gigantic representation of Niagara Falls, 1000 feet long and 100 feet high, extending over a space three squares in extent, and when fired will pour forth such an avalanche of corruscating flames and a deluge of hissing meteors as will furnish a spectacle sublimely awful and more terribly grand than the Chicago fire of 1871. Another marvellous feature of the pyrotechnic exhibitions will be the ascension of ten large balloons each carrying high up into the heaven a magazine of monster rockets. The courses of the balloons will be marked in their flight by powerful magnesium lights which in burning will finally gain the baskets and explode the rockets at an immense height. The effect will be terrific, for the thunderous detonations which follow, as if the very sky were being bombarded, will be succeeded by a heavy rain-fall of stars so dazzling that for the moment it will appear as if all the constellations of the heavens were falling to the earth.

Besides these magical displays will be the flight and explosion of 5000 immense rockets at one time, a larger number than was ever before sent up simultaneously. The effect may be imagined. There will also be a marvellous representation of the Pleiades, produced by the explosion of 50 four-pound rockets, these to be followed by three successive flights of 100 quadri-centennial shells, each two feet in diameter and capable of creating a detonation equal to the discharge of the largest Columbiad.

PORTRAITS AND THE AMERICAN FLAG IN LIVID FLAMES.

A set piece which will perhaps have the largest number of admirers, will be a wheel of fire, eighty-four feet in diameter, which when first set in motion will show great streamers of stars, next a mammoth bouquet of roses will appear, to be succeeded by a flaming portrait of Queen Isabella.

Many other surprising pieces and effects will be produced, among which may be mentioned a Temple of Fame, 300 feet in length and 75 in height, which will appear like a Titanic wall of breaking flame pointing its fiery fingers towards the zenith. A larger piece, 400 feet long and 90 feet high, will be fired, and in the gigantic blaze of shooting meteors will be seen a perfect representation of the Capitol building at Washington. Other set scenes will present fiery portraits of Washington, Lincoln and Harrison. There will be likewise a Chinese pagoda of fire, 200 feet long and 70 feet high, while behind it will be

represented a prismatic fountain shooting its blazing streams to a height of 75 feet, distributing its intense lights through the water as well as in the air, so that the great variety of fish that swam in the lagoons and canals may be plainly seen.

The most unique, original and astonishing piece in the wonderful display of fireworks will be a fiery simulation of our country's flag floating in the heavens. How this astonishing effect is to be produced is something of a secret which may not yet be disclosed. An idea of how the representation is to be accomplished can be formed, however, from the very meagre description which has been given by the manager of the display. First, a vast cloud of smoke is to be blown high in the air to form the blue field, into which forty-four mortars will discharge as many bombs carefully timed to explode simultaneously, which explosions will form the stars. Other mortars will fire at the same time shells loaded with colored explosives, which in bursting throw out long streamers of red and white to form the bars, the whole producing for an instant a gigantic American flag with all the colors harmoniously blended.

PROGRAMME OF THE DEDICATION CEREMONIES.

When the Congress of the United States authorized the commemoration of the Four Hundredth Anniversary of the discovery of America by an International Exposition to be held in Chicago during the summer of 1893, it also provided that the Exposition buildings should be dedicated on the twelfth day of October, 1892, with "appropriate ceremonies."

Aside from the international interest in this fitting prelude to the magnificent picture of the world's progress that will be presented in 1893, this dedicatory service will furnish an opportunity for the world to behold the extent of the preparations which are being made for the Exposition.

The task of preparing a programme of ceremonies which will appropriately herald the greater spectacle commemorating the discovery, development and progress of the New World, has been a work involving great care and the consideration of many difficulties. The following programme of the dedicatory exercises and incidents connected therewith is submitted as the result of this thought and purpose :

TUESDAY, OCTOBER ELEVENTH.

The first day will witness an imposing procession, indicative of peace, contentment, and prosperity, participated in by industrial and civic organizations of the United States, reviewed by the President of the United States, his Cabinet, the Congress and other honored guests.

The remainder of the programme will be carried out at Jackson Park. In the evening, amid myriads of electric lights and other electrical displays, a water pageant will move through the beautiful waterways of the Exposition grounds, illustrating with beauty and historic accuracy some of the great facts of history connected with the discovery of America, such as the condition of this country prior to the landing of Columbus ; striking events in the life of the Great Discoverer ; important epochs in American history, and the world's progress in civilization. The vessels upon which these tableaux will be represented vary from 40 to 53 feet in length, modelled after the naval architecture of the period represented ; for example, "Columbus before the Court of Spain" will be represented upon a vessel modelled after the exact lines of the *Santa Maria*.

The following subjects will be illustrated :—

1. Aboriginal Age ; representing the American Indians.
2. The Stone Age ; representing the Cliff Dwellers and the Toltecs.
3. The Bronze Age ; representing the Aztecs, their religious rites, manners and customs.

4. Columbus at the Court of Ferdinand and Isabella.
5. Departure of Columbus from Palos.
6. Discovery of America.
7. Columbus before the Court of Ferdinand and Isabella, presenting natives and the strange products of the new country
8. English Cavaliers and the settlement of Jamestown.
9. Hendrick Hudson ; discovery of the Hudson River ; Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam.
10. Landing of the Pilgrims, and illustrations of early Puritan life.
11. Ferdinand de Soto. Discovery of the Mississippi
12. Pierre Marquette. Chevalier La Salle and the Northwest.
13. Washington and his contemporaries.
14. Signing of the Declaration of Independence.
15. Union of the Colonies ; the thirteen original States ; the sisterhood of the Great Republic ; welcoming the Territories to the constellation of States.
16. " Westward the course of empire takes its way."
17. The Genius of Invention ; application of steam, etc.
18. Electricity and electrical appliances.
19. War ; representing valor, sacrifice, power, death, devastation.
20. Peace ; representing tranquillity, security, prosperity, happiness
21. Agriculture.
22. Mining.
23. Science, Art and Literature.
24. Universal brotherhood of men ; equal rights, law and justice ; Liberty enlightening the world.

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER TWELFTH.—DEDICATION DAY.

The National Salute at sunrise will inaugurate the ceremonies of Dedication Day. The President of the United States, his Cabinet, members of the Supreme Court, members of the Senate and House of Representatives, distinguished foreign guests and governors of the different States and Territories with their staff will be escorted by a Guard of Honor, composed of troops of the United States, detachments of the United States naval forces and regiments from the various State National Guards to the Manufactures and Liberal Arts building, in which the dedicatory exercises will be held.

At one o'clock in the afternoon in this building the following dedicatory programme will be carried out under the direction of the Director-General :—

1. March for Orchestra. Written for the occasion by John K. Payne.
2. Prayer by Bishop Charles H. Fowler, D.D., LL.D., of California.
3. Dedicatory Ode. Words by Miss Harriet Munroe, of Chicago ; music by Professor G. W. Chadwick, of Boston.
4. Presentation of the Master Artists of the Exposition and their completed work by the Chief of Construction.
5. Report of the Director-General to the World's Columbian Commission.
6. Presentation of the buildings for dedication, by the President of the World's Columbian Exposition to the President of the World's National Commission.
7. Chorus, " The Heavens are Telling."—Haydn.
8. Presentation of the buildings for dedication, by the President of the World's Columbian Commission to the President of the United States.
9. March and Chorus from " The Ruins of Athens "—Beethoven.
10. Dedication of the buildings by the President of the United States.
11. Hallelujah Chorus from " The Messiah."—Handel.
12. Dedicatory Oration, Hon Wm C. P. Breckinridge, Kentucky.
13. " The Star Spangled Banner," and " Hail Columbia Symphony," with full chorus and orchestral accompaniment.
14. Columbian Oration, Chauncey M. Depew, New York.
15. National Salute.

At the close of this programme a special electric and pyrotechnic display will be given, with a repetition of " The Water Pageant," or procession of the centuries.

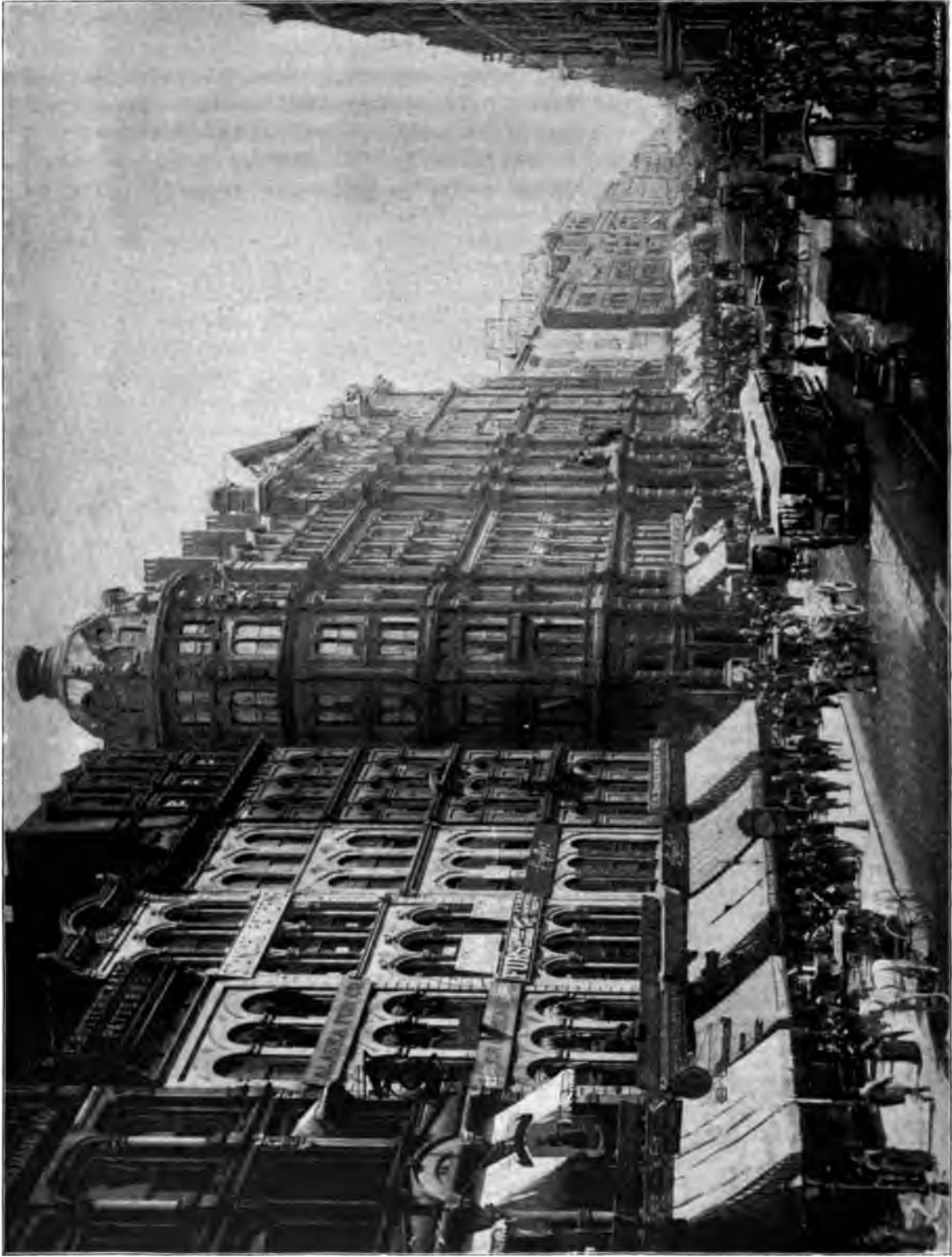
THURSDAY, OCTOBER THIRTEENTH.

The third day's ceremonies include a special dedication of the Woman's Building by the officers and members of the National Board of Lady Managers and their invited guests from this and foreign countries.

A series of manœuvres and parades will constitute the remaining portion of the day's programme. In the evening attractive and appropriate features will be provided, followed by a magnificent display of fireworks.

A number of brilliant social entertainments will be given by the citizens of Chicago during the three evenings of the dedication celebration, concluding with a grand dedicatory ball on the final night of the celebration, Wednesday, October 13th, 1892.





VIEW OF STATE STREET AND THE PALMER HOUSE, CHICAGO.



Guide to Chicago.

COMPILED BY

R. E. A. DORR.

ASSISTANT CHIEF DEPARTMENT OF PUBLICITY AND PROMOTION, WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.



THE DIFFICULTY of compressing a Guide to so vast, crowded and interesting a city as Chicago into the space-limit imposed by the publishers of this volume, will be apparent to the most casual reader of the following pages. All attempts at ambitious writing or long descriptions of points of interest are necessarily sacrificed to the most concise statement of facts, the most direct information regarding the places worth seeing, and how they may be most easily and quickly reached.

By reference to the map it will be readily understood that this guide assumes that all those who consult it will start in their inspection of Chicago from the central or hotel district, bounded on the east by Lake Michigan; on the north by Lake street; on the south by Congress street, and on the west by La Salle street. These boundaries are indicated on the map by the red lines. The great boulevard system, within which is the improved portion of the city, is indicated by the green lines. Every point of interest within the central district and therefore within easy walking distance of nearly all the hotels, is indicated by (†). It is confidently believed that strangers in the city, who will, by consulting the map, first fix the points of the compass in their minds, and then the central or (†) district, will have little difficulty in going to any desired place without asking questions or becoming confused.

Chicago has been aptly called the marvel of city building of the world. It seems scarcely credible that on March 4th, 1892, it celebrated its Fifty-fifth anniversary as a corporation, and that in this half century it has grown from a little village to the second city of the country, with a population according to the United States Census of 1890, of 1,208,669, and according to estimates in May, 1892, of 1,308,669 people.

The sky-scraping business buildings, palatial residences, great manufactories, magnificent streets and avenues, and imposing public institutions will at once impress visitors with the true greatness of this metropolis of the West. The following briefly told facts will aid in illustrating the real importance which Chicago must be allotted among municipalities of the world.

The northern and southern city limits are now twenty-four miles apart; the eastern and western boundaries ten and one-half miles distant. There are 1974 acres of public parks and twenty out of thirty-eight miles of boulevards projected, are completed. The 185 miles of street railways render every section of the great city easy of access, and the twenty-six steam roads entering the city cause it to be the undisputed railroad centre of the country. A police force of 1503 officers and men preserves order among a population composed of eighty-two nationalities, and a fire department with 970 employees guards against the repetition of the conflagration of 1871, which has not been equalled in destructiveness in modern times.

To illustrate Chicago's commercial supremacy it need only be told that the arrivals and clearances of vessels at the port are 50 per cent. greater than at New York, and nearly equal those of New York, Boston and Baltimore combined. That it is the greatest market in the world for grain and provisions is getting to be an old story, and that its bank clearances are now only third among American cities will not surprise anyone who has at all studied its growth in trade and manufactures.

But while Chicago has been expanding in all lines of business, its citizens have also been developing and ennobling their loved city in other directions. This is particularly notable in education and art matters. There are now located here four great universities, 350 academies and seminaries, and 800 private schools, the average attendance in all being 70,000 students. Public education is here brought up to the highest level

of American progress, the estimated expenditure for this purpose for the year 1892 being \$5,996,084. In public charities it is estimated that \$5,000,000 is expended annually, and the private donations for charitable institutions are estimated at \$3,000,000. There are fifty charity asylums and thirty hospitals in Chicago.

In spite of the oft-repeated assertion that Chicago is the wickedest city of the country it supports 575 churches; the largest Y. M. C. A. organization in the country, and every known kind of organization for the suppression of vice.

On the social side of life Chicago has made rapid strides the past twenty years. The general commercial prosperity of the community has made hundreds of families sufficiently wealthy to devote time and money to the cultivation of their sons and daughters, and the result is a rapid spreading of refining influences in almost all grades of society. The theatres, the clubs, art galleries, the lecture rooms and the musical organizations of the city now rank with any in the country. Among the thirty-two theatres in the city are several of the most beautiful and costly in this country, if not in the world.

As a hotel town Chicago unquestionably leads. There are 1400 registered hotels with accommodations for from fifty to 1000 guests each. The total capacity is estimated at 175,000 guests, the population of many cities of world-wide fame.

Until very recently it has been customary to regard Chicago as of mushroom growth, and to think of it as built by borrowed capital and imported brains. This line of thought, or sneer, must be abandoned. Chicago has now accumulated so much wealth and so many of its families are in their second generation as land-owners, that the city and its customs have the stability of municipalities far surpassing it in age. Chicago cannot be denied the proud position of a leading city of the world and aspires to soon become *the* leading city of the Western Hemisphere.

MAIN RAILWAY STATIONS.

Ashland Routes.—(See Milwaukee, Lake Shore & Western.)

Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe R. R.—(Generally called the Santa Fe), Dearborn Station, Dearborn and Polk streets and Third avenue. State street cable cars. Central ticket office, 212 Clark street (+), opposite Postoffice.

Baltimore & Ohio R. R.—Grand Central Station Harrison street and Fifth avenue. Adams street horse car. (Take car that turns south at 5th avenue to Harrison street.) Central ticket office, 193 Clark street(+), between Adams and Monroe streets.

Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.—Union Station, Canal and Adams streets. Adams or Madison street horse car, or Carrette (omnibus) line on Adams street. City ticket office, 211 Clark street(+), opposite Postoffice.

Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R.—Union Station, Canal and Adams streets. Adams or Madison street horse cars or Carrette (omnibus) line on Adams street. City ticket office, 207-209 Clark street(+), near Postoffice.

Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Ry.—Station, Van Buren street, between Sherman street and Pacific avenue(+). Van Buren street horse cars, east and west. Clark street horse cars run north and south, one block east. Central ticket office, S. W. Cor. Clark and Washington Streets(+).

Chicago, St. Paul & Kansas City Ry.—Grand Central Station, Harrison street and Fifth avenue. Adams street horse car. (Take car that turns south at Fifth avenue to Harrison street.) Central ticket office, 188 Clark street(+), between Adams and Monroe streets.

Chicago & Alton R. R.—Union Station, Canal and Adams street. Adams or Madison street horse car or Carrette (omnibus) line on Adams street. City ticket office, 195 Clark street(+), between Adams and Monroe.

Chicago & Eastern Illinois R. R.—Dearborn Station, cor. Dearborn and Polk streets and Third avenue. State street cable cars.

Chicago & Erie.—(See Erie Lines.)

Chicago & Grand Trunk Railway.—Dearborn Station, cor. Dearborn and Polk streets and Third avenue. State street cable cars. Central ticket office, 103 Clark street.

Chicago & North Western Railway.—Station corner Wells and Kinzie streets (north side). North Clark street cable cars. Central ticket office, 206 and 208 Clark street(+), opposite Postoffice.

Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis Ry.—(Frequently called the "Big Four" on account of its termini in four great cities). Station east of Michigan avenue, between Lake and Randolph streets(+). Wabash avenue and State street cable cars to corner Lake street and Wabash avenue. One block east to station. Central ticket office, Grand Pacific Hotel(+).

Erie Lines. This system embraces New York, Lake Erie & Western R. R.; New York, Pennsylvania & Ohio; Chicago & Erie R. R., and several less important roads. The entrance to Chicago is by Chicago & Erie R. R. Dearborn Station, Dearborn street, corner Polk street and Third avenue. State street cable cars. City ticket office, 242 South Clark street(+), Grand Pacific Hotel building.

Grand Trunk Railway.—(See Chicago & Grand Trunk Railway.)

Illinois Central R. R.—Central Depot, east of Michigan avenue, between Lake and Randolph streets(+). Wabash avenue and State street cable cars to corner Lake street and Wabash avenue. One block east to station. Central ticket office, 194 Clark street(+), near Postoffice.

Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Ry.—Station, Van Buren street, between Sherman street and Pacific avenue(+). Van Buren street horse cars east and west. Clark Street horse cars run north and south, one block east. City ticket office, 66 Clark street(+), corner Randolph.

Louisville, New Albany & Chicago Ry.—(Popularly known as the "Monon" route.) Dearborn Station, Dearborn street, corner Polk street and Third avenue. State street cable car. City ticket office, 232 Clark street(+), corner Quincy.

Michigan Central R. R.—Central Depot, east of Michigan avenue, between Lake and Randolph streets(+). State street or Wabash avenue cars to Lake street and Wabash avenue. One block east to station. City ticket office, 67 Clark street(+), corner Randolph.

New York Central & Hudson River R. R.—Trains enter and leave Chicago by Lake Shore & Michigan Southern R. R., and Michigan Central R. R. See paragraphs on these roads for location of stations and ticket offices.

New York, Lake Erie & Western R. R.—(See Erie Lines.)

Northern Pacific R. R.—Grand Central Depot, corner Harrison and Fifth avenue. Adams street horse car. (Take car that turns south on Fifth avenue.) City ticket office, 210 Clark street (†), opposite Postoffice.

Pennsylvania R. R.—(See Pennsylvania Lines.)

Pittsburg & Fort Wayne R. R.—(See Pennsylvania Lines.)

Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis.—(Familiarly known as the Panhandle Route)—(See Pennsylvania Lines.)

Pennsylvania Lines.—(Embracing all trains of Pennsylvania R. R., Pittsburg & Fort Wayne R. R., and Panhandle Route.) Union Depot, corner Canal and Adams streets. Adams or Madison street horse cars or Carrette (omnibus) line on Adams street. Central ticket office, corner Jackson and Clark streets (†), Grand Pacific Hotel Building.

Union Pacific System.—(Trains enter and leave Chicago via Chicago & Northwestern R. R.) Station corner Wells and Kinzie streets (north side). North Clark street cable car. Central ticket office, 191 Clark street (†), near Postoffice.

Wabash R. R.—Dearborn Station, corner Dearborn street and Third avenue. State street cable car. City ticket office, 201 Clark street (†), near Postoffice.

Wisconsin Central R. R.—Grand Central Depot, Harrison and Fifth avenue. Adams street horse car. (Take car that turns south on Fifth avenue.) Central ticket office 205 Clark street (†), opposite Postoffice.

Milwaukee, Lake Shore and Western.—Station, Wells and Kinzie streets (north side). North Clark street cable car. City ticket office 197 Clark street (†), near Postoffice.

New York, Chicago & St. Louis.—(Popularly known as the "Nickel Plate.") Station, Van Buren street, between Sherman street and Pacific avenue (†), Van Buren street cars. Clark street cars run north and south one block east.

LAKE STEAMER PASSENGER LINES.

All passenger steamers leave Chicago from piers along the Chicago river within a short cab ride, or easy walking distance, of the hotels within the (†) boundary. Wabash avenue cable cars running north or North Clark street cable cars run within a block or two of the piers.

Graham & Morton Transportation Co.—Dock foot of Wabash avenue. Steamers for St. Joseph and Benton Harbor, Mich., daily and Sunday. This is a delightful excursion of about sixty miles almost due east across Lake Michigan. Morning boat returns same evening.

Goodrich Line.—Dock, foot Michigan avenue. All ports on Lake Michigan and Green Bay. A favorite excursion is to Racine and Milwaukee, Wis., going one day and returning the next. Steamers leave morning and evening.

Lake Michigan and Lake Superior Transportation Co.—Dock near Rush street bridge, foot of Michigan avenue. Steamers sail Wednesday and Saturday for Duluth at the head of Lake Superior, landing at the fashionable summer resort, Mackinac Island, Sault Ste. Marie, Marquette and all points in the famous copper regions of Lake Superior. The trip from Chicago to Duluth consumes five and one-half days.

Excursion steamers leave foot of Van Buren street (†) for the World's Fair grounds at frequent intervals.

CABLE CAR LINES.

North Clark Street Cable Line.—Take car to go north at corner Monroe and Dearborn streets (†).

Madison Street Cable Line.—Take car to go west at corner La Salle and Madison streets (†) or corner La Salle and Washington streets.

Wabash Avenue Cable Line.—To go south, take car on State street, between Lake and Madison streets (†), or Wabash avenue at corner of Madison street (†), any point on Wabash avenue further south.

State Street Cable Line.—To go south take car on State street at corner of Lake street (†) or at any point on State street further south.

THE WORLD'S FAIR.

(The accompanying map is the official plan of the grounds.) The World's Columbian Exposition will be held in buildings now nearing completion at Jackson Park, a tract of 633 acres on the lake front six and a half miles south by east of the City Hall. It may be reached by Illinois Central Railroad, Wabash avenue cable cars or by steamboats from the foot of Van Buren street. According to present plans there will be entrances at 57th, 59th, 60th, 62d, 63d, and 67th streets, and for passengers by boats at piers at the north and south ends of the grounds. The main entrance will be at 62d or 63d streets. Railroad trains will probably enter the grounds and land their passengers just west of the Administration Building.

The exhibits will be in thirteen great buildings, the names of which generally indicate the character of the exhibits, as follows:

Administration Building,	Fine Arts Building,
Offices of the Officials,	Forestry Building,
National Bank,	Horticulture Building,
Post Office,	Machinery Hall,
Telegraph,	Manufactures and Lib-
Express Offices,	Arts Building,
Agriculture Building,	Mines and Mining Build-
Dairy Building,	ing,
Electrical Building,	Transportation Exhibits
Government Building,	Building,
Fisheries Building,	Woman's Building.

To the north of the Art Palace will be the group of buildings erected by the States and Territories for collective exhibits, illustrating their resources and natural history. Buildings for similar purposes will be erected by the leading nations of the world, at points indicated on the map. On the Midway Plaisance will be located the exhibits typical of nearly all forms of life in all parts of the world. As the walks and avenues within the grounds have not yet been named by the exposition officials, it is only possible in this guide to indicate the nearest entrance to any given point and the general direction to follow after passing through the gate.

Agriculture, Department of—63d street gate. Proceed south around Transportation and Administration buildings and east across lagoon. By boat to South Pier.

Battle Ship. (Naval exhibit.)—59th street gate. Proceed due east to Lake front. By boat to North Pier.

Casino.—Same route as to Agricultural Department. By boat to South Pier.

Convent of La Rabida.—Follow route to Agricultural Department, turn south at east end of Agricultural building and cross lagoon to the Convent. By boat to South Pier.

Government Building.—Containing exhibits prepared by the great executive departments of the National Government. 60th street gate. Proceed

due east past the north end of the Horticulture building, cross the lagoon to the Wooded Island and the island. The bridge at the north end of the island across the east branch of the lagoon leads to the Fisheries building just north of the Government building. By boat to North Pier.

Japanese Building and Exhibit.—60th street gate. A tract at the north end of the Wooded Island has been allotted to Japan for a building and exhibit of landscape gardening. Proceed due east from entrance, pass north end of Horticulture building and across bridge over the lagoon. By boat to North Pier.

Midway Plaisance.—A strip of land between 59th and 60th streets, $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile long. Enter at 59th street. Midway Plaisance will be devoted to typical exhibits of the manners and customs of various countries. There will be theatres, dancing girls, restaurants and bazaars of many oriental nations. An extra admission fee will be charged to most of these exhibits.

Music Hall.—63d street gate. Proceed through the Transportation Exhibits building to east entrance; south to corner of Mines and Mining building, east past Mines and Mining building, Electrical building and Manufactures building to the Lake front. By boat to South Pier.

State Buildings.—On June 1, 1892, thirty-nine States had declared the intention of erecting buildings on the exposition grounds. The buildings will all be in the immediate vicinity of the Art building and most of them just north of it. The map shows the lots reserved for each State. The nearest entrance is at the 57th street gate or by boat at North Pier.

Stock Exhibit.—67th street gate. Proceed due east to the 40 acres of cattle pens and sheds which extend from near the west fence of the grounds to the Lake Michigan front. By boat to South Pier.

Statue of the Republic.—At the lake end of the main basin. 63d street gate. Pass through Transportation Exhibits building, then south to Administration building, east past Mines building, Electrical building and Manufactures building. By boat to South Pier. The statue will be 60 feet high and will stand on a pedestal 40 feet high.

Wooded Island.—60th or 62d street gate. By boat to North Pier. The island will be devoted to horticulture and floriculture exhibits, except the north end, which is allotted to Japan. (See Japanese exhibit.)

HOTELS.

[The lowest regular rate per day named by proprietors is given.]

Atlantic Hotel.—Corner Van Buren and Sherman streets (†). American plan, \$2.00; European plan, \$1.00. Van Buren street cars pass the door.

Auditorium Hotel.—Michigan Boulevard and Congress street (†). 425 rooms. American plan, \$4.00; European plan, \$2.00. Wabash Avenue cable car.

Briggs House.—Randolph street and Fifth avenue. 200 rooms. American plan, \$2.00; European plan, \$1.00. Randolph Street car.

Burke's European Hotel.—South side Madison street, between La Salle and Clark (†). 75 rooms. European plan, \$1.00. Madison street horse car.

Clifton House.—Monroe street and Wabash avenue (†). 200 rooms. American plan, \$3.00. Wabash avenue cable car.

Commercial Hotel.—Lake and Dearborn streets (†). 225 rooms. American plan, \$2.00; European plan, \$1.00. Lake Street horse car and North Clark street cable car.

Gault House.—West Madison and Clinton streets. 200 rooms. American plan, \$2.00. Madison street cable car.

Gore's Hotel.—Nos. 266 to 274 South Clark street (†). 250 rooms. European plan, \$1.00. Clark street horse car.

Grand Pacific.—Corner Clark, Jackson and La Salle streets (†). 600 rooms. American plan, \$3.00. Clark street horse car.

Hotel Brevoort.—North side Madison between Clark and La Salle streets (†). 250 rooms. European plan, \$1.00. Madison Street horse car.

Hotel Grace.—Corner Clark and Jackson streets (†). 200 rooms. European plan, \$1.00. Clark street car.

Hotel Wellington.—Corner Wabash avenue and Jackson street (†). 220 rooms. European plan, \$2.00. Wabash avenue cable car.

Hotel Woodruff.—Corner Wabash avenue and 21st street. American plan, \$4.00. Wabash avenue cable car.

Hyde Park Hotel.—Lake avenue and 52d street. 300 rooms. American plan, \$3.00. Illinois Central R. R. to 50th street Station, east one block to Lake avenue, south one block to hotel.

Leland Hotel.—Corner Michigan Boulevard and Jackson street (†). 300 rooms. American plan, \$3.00; European plan, \$1.50. Wabash avenue cable cars cross Jackson street one block west.

McCoy's Hotel.—Clark and Van Buren streets (†). 250 rooms. European plan, \$1.00. Clark street horse cars north and south, Van Buren street cars east and west.

Northern Hotel.—Corner Dearborn and Jackson streets (†). 500 rooms. State street cable car one block east.

Palmer House.—Corner State and Monroe streets (†), with frontage also on Wabash avenue. 750 rooms. American plan, \$3.50; European plan, \$1.50. State street cable cars pass main entrance; Wabash avenue cable cars cross Monroe street one-half block east of ladies' entrance.

Richelleu Hotel.—Michigan Boulevard, between Jackson and Van Buren streets (†). 150 rooms. European plan, \$2.00. Wabash avenue cable cars cross Jackson and Van Buren streets one block west.

Saratoga Hotel.—Nos. 155 to 161 Dearborn street (†). 183 rooms. European plan, 75 cts. North Clark street cable cars pass the hotel going north; Madison street horse cars cross Dearborn street one-half block north.

Sherman House.—Corner Clark and Randolph streets (†). 300 rooms. American plan, \$3.00. Clark street cars north and south; Randolph street cars east and west.

Southern Hotel.—Corner Wabash avenue and 22d street. 150 rooms. American plan, \$2.00; European plan, \$1.00. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Tremont House.—Corner Dearborn and Lake streets (†), 300 rooms. American plan, \$3.50. North Clark street cable cars pass the door; State street and Wabash avenue cable cars one block east.

Victoria Hotel.—Michigan Boulevard, corner Van Buren street (†). 250 rooms. American plan, \$3.00. Wabash avenue cable cars cross Van Buren street one block west.

Hotel Metropole.—Michigan Boulevard, near 22d street. American plan, \$4.00; European plan, \$2.00. Wabash avenue cable car to 22d and Michigan Boulevard.

German Hotel.—Randolph street, between Dearborn and Clark streets (†). 150 rooms. (Plan o

management, terms and date of opening not yet determined.) Randolph street cars.

The hotels named above include not only the largest and leading hostleries of the city, but those that have an established and general transient patronage. There are in addition, however, at least 1200 hotels that accommodate from fifty to 100 guests and rejoice in more or less high sounding names, but the space in this guide is too limited for their enumeration. It is probable that there will also be at least fifteen mammoth caravansaries built near the World's Fair grounds and about one dozen within a mile of the heart of the city. There is too much uncertainty, however, about all of these projects at the time of compiling this guide to include them in its hotel list.

THEATRES AND PLACES OF AMUSEMENT.

Alhambra Theatre.—Corner State street and Archer avenue. Seating capacity, 2500. State street cable cars.

Auditorium Theatre.—Corner Wabash avenue and Congress street (†). The largest and most costly theatre in America. Seating capacity, 4050. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Battle of Gettysburg Cyclorama.—Corner Wabash avenue and Panorama Place. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Central Music Hall.—Corner State and Randolph streets (†). Seating capacity, 2000.

Chicago Opera House.—Corner Clark and Washington streets (†). Seating capacity, 2300.

Columbia Theatre.—Monroe street, between Dearborn and Clark streets (†). Seating capacity 2400.

Casino.—Wabash avenue, near Adams street (†). Wax works, museum and frequent stage performances.

Criterion Theatre.—Corner Sedgwick and Division streets. Seating capacity, 1800. Sedgwick street car or north Clark street cable line.

German Theatre.—North side Randolph street, between Dearborn and Clark (†). (To be completed by fall of 1892.) Seating capacity, 1300.

Grand Opera House.—East side Clark street, between Randolph and Washington (†). Seating capacity, 1800.

Havlin's Theatre.—Wabash avenue, between 18th and 20th streets. Seating capacity, 2000. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Haymarket Theatre.—West Madison street, between Halstead and Union. Seating capacity 2,475. Madison street cable cars.

Haverley's Theatre.—North side Randolph street, between La Salle and Clark (†). Seating capacity, 1506.

H. R. Jacob's Academy.—West side. South Halstead, near West Madison street. Seating capacity, 1800. West Madison street cable cars.

H. R. Jacob's Clark Street Theatre.—East side North Clark street, near Kinzie street. Seating capacity, 1500. Dearborn street car running north.

Standard Theatre.—Corner Halstead and Jackson streets. Seating capacity, 2200. South Halstead street car at Randolph and State streets.

Libby Prison Museum.—Wabash avenue, between 14th and 16th streets. Original Libby Prison brought from Richmond, Va., and rebuilt of the same material and exactly as it was when Union soldiers were confined there during the Rebellion. Many war relics are shown. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Lyceum Theatre.—Desplaines street, between Madison and Washington. Seating capacity, 2000. Madison street cable cars.

Madison Street Theatre.—North side Madison street near State (†). Seating capacity, 1400.

McVicker's Theatre.—Madison street, near State street (†). Seating capacity, 1900.

New Windsor Theatre.—Corner North Clark and Division streets. Seating capacity 2,000. North Clark street cable cars.

Park Theatre.—State street, between Congress and Harrison streets. Seating capacity 1,500. State street cable car.

People's Theatre.—State street, between Congress and Harrison streets. Seating capacity 2,000. State street cable car.

Waverly Theatre.—West Madison street, between Throop and Loomis. Seating capacity, 1400. Madison street cable cars.

Zimmerman Opera House.—Sixty-third street and Seward avenue, Englewood. Seating capacity, 1200. Chicago and Rock Island Railroad to Englewood.

COMMERCIAL EXCHANGES.

There are comparatively few commercial exchanges in Chicago, the tendency in speculative business running mostly to grain and provisions.

Board of Trade.—La Salle street, Jackson street, Pacific avenue and Sherman street (†). The leading grain and provision mart in the world. Membership 2000. The building, 200x174 feet, cost \$1,800,000. It is of gray granite, with a tower 322 feet high. The great hall or exchange is 174x155 feet. At the Jackson Street end is a gallery open to the public, and at the other a gallery for invited guests. The transactions on the Chicago Board of Trade involve greater money values than in the exchange of London, the Paris Bourse or the New York Stock Exchange. They are of vastly greater consequence to humanity in nearly all parts of the world.

Builders and Traders Exchange.—159 La Salle street (†). (Rooms 12, 14, 16.) Dealers in all kinds of building material, contractors and investors meet daily to buy and sell all articles used in the construction of buildings. New inventions are frequently displayed.

Chicago Real Estate Board.—Randolph and Dearborn (†) (Real Estate Board Building).—The membership includes most of the leading, responsible real estate dealers of the city. A daily record of transfers is kept, and proposals for purchase or sale are posted. Impartial valuations of property are made for intending sellers or investors by a committee appointed for that purpose, for a small fee. Close watch is maintained on municipal legislation affecting real estate. Complaints of dishonest or unscrupulous dealing by real estate agents are investigated and assistance rendered in punishing such fraud.

Chicago Stock Exchange.—Dearborn and Monroe (†). (Stock Exchange Building.) Interest in stock speculation in Chicago has been rapidly increasing since 1889, when the sales aggregated only 145,725 shares of stock and \$19,029,500 of bonds, against 750,000 shares of stock and \$9,500,000 of bonds in 1891. While the scenes on the Chicago Exchange on exciting days will not compare in interest to the visitor with those on the New York Exchange, a very comprehensive idea may be gained of the methods of conducting stock speculations. There are accommodations for visitors during business hours from 10.30 A. M. to 2.15 P. M. every day.

Fruit Buyers Association.—144 South Water street (meets in Produce Exchange). To regulate the sale of California fruit, of which 10 to 20 car loads arrive in Chicago daily.

Fruit and Vegetable Dealers Exchange.—144 South Water street. A general market for commission merchants in fruits and vegetables.

PARKS AND BOULEVARDS.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of Chicago to visitors, except, of course, the World's Fair, is the public parks and Boulevard system by which they are connected. Beginning at Humboldt Boulevard on the north, the inquirers of this GUIDE will readily trace the magnificent pleasure drive west, south and east again until at Washington Park it connects with Drexel and Grand Boulevards running north to Oakland Boulevard, and via 35th street, joining Michigan Boulevard which extends into (going north) the very heart of the city. There will be thirty-eight miles of boulevards when the system is completed. Twenty miles are now in use. These magnificent avenues, none of them less than 200 feet wide, connect and are a part of the public parks of the city. Like the parks they are beautiful in the highest art of the landscape gardener, and are, for the most part, lined by the palatial residences of Chicago's wealthiest citizens. The park system embraces 1,974.61 acres exclusive of the boulevards. It is divided into North, South and West systems, as the city is into similarly designated "sides." Commissioners for each section are elected by the courts and have absolute control over the roads and parks. A direct tax on the respective geographical divisions of the city provides means for improving, keeping in repair and policing parks and boulevards. The prohibition of traffic wagons on all these drives devotes them solely to pleasure purposes, and enables their guardians to keep them always in holiday attire. The principal car lines by which to reach the parks are as follows:

Jackson Park—South Side.—(Used for World's Fair until summer of 1894.) 586 acres on the shore of Lake Michigan. Illinois Central R. R. to 57th street station, or Wabash avenue cable line, Hyde Park car.

Washington Park—South Side.—371 acres. Wabash avenue or State street cable lines. Park phaetons convey visitors to all points of interest and through Grand and Drexel boulevards for 25c.

Douglas Park—West Side.—179 acres. West 12th street, or Ogden avenue cars.

Garfield Park—West Side.—185 acres. West Madison street cable cars.

Humboldt Park—West Side.—200 acres. Milwaukee avenue cable cars or West North avenue cars.

Lincoln Park—North Side.—250 acres. North Clark street cable car. The Grant and Lincoln Monuments, a well stocked menagerie and an electric fountain are features of interest in Lincoln Park.

Lake Shore Drive.—Beginning on the north side of Chicago avenue at Pine street and extending along the Lake front to the northern extremity of Lincoln Park, where it connects with Sheridan road which is completed along the edge of the lake for twenty-five miles. This is, beyond question, the grandest boulevard and most ambitious improvement Chicago has undertaken. For nearly the entire distance along the east edge of Lincoln Park the drive is from 150 to 200 feet from the shore. The granite blocks are laid on a foundation of earth and piles, and cemented together so as to compose a solid mass of masonry. Between the drive and the sloping banks of the park is a canal, forming the finest three mile rowing regatta course in the country. The east side of the drive, exposed to the violence of the lake storms is a heavy sea wall with a parapet. This improvement has been in progress since 1888, and is expected to be completed by the fall of '92. The drive will cross a steel swinging bridge of beautiful design beneath which the canal and lake waters join. The north and south ends of the drive have land connections with Lincoln Park. For some distance along the south end of the drive it

is lined by the most beautiful and costly mansions of Chicago's oldest and wealthiest families.

MONUMENTS IN CHICAGO.

Douglas Monument.—Douglas Park. A granite shaft 104 feet high, above a mausoleum containing the remains of Stephen A. Douglas, one of Illinois' greatest sons. A bronze statue surmounts the shaft. Wabash avenue cable car to 35th street, or Illinois Central R. R. to Douglas Park.

Police Monument.—Haymarket Square. A bronze statue of a Chicago policeman, erected by the city in memory of the seven gallant officers who were killed in the Anarchist riot, May 4, 1886. Randolph street cars.

Soldiers' Monument.—Rosehill Cemetery. (See cemeteries.)

Lincoln Monument.—Lincoln Park. Considered the most accurate likeness of Lincoln in bronze. Executed by St. Gandens. Cost, with pedestal, \$50,000. Presented to the city by the late Eli Bates.

Grant Monument.—Lincoln Park. A colossal equestrian bronze figure on a massive foundation of masonry. Executed by Rebisso of Cincinnati and erected with funds secured by private subscription.

Von Linne Monument.—Lincoln Park. Erected in memory of the eminent naturalist, Carl Von Linné by the Swedish societies of Chicago. The figure is of bronze and is an exact reproduction of the Linné monument at Stockholm. Executed by Dyreman, the Swedish sculptor.

There are also fine statues of Shakespeare and Schiller in Lincoln Park, and others of less importance.

LIBRARIES.

Public Library of Chicago occupies ample accommodations in the City Hall (the block bounded by Washington, Randolph, Clark and La Salle streets) (†). It is one of the largest in the United States. The last annual report states that the library contains 430,094 volumes, covering almost every branch of literature. During the year there were 492,837 visitors to the reading rooms and 1,290,514 permits were granted for the use of books. There is a separate reading room for women, and every facility is offered for study and research. The library is maintained by the city, the total cost for 1891 being \$102,869.19. Five branch reading rooms are maintained in outlying sections of the city. The library is open to the public from 9 A. M. to 10 P. M. week days and 10 A. M. to 10 P. M. Sundays.

Newberry Library.—N. W. corner State and Oak streets. Now occupies temporary quarters pending the completion of its new building which will have space for one million volumes. The founder, the late Walter L. Newberry, bequeathed real estate to the library valued at from two and a half to three million dollars. The trustees have postponed energetic collection of books until the great building is completed. The library now contains only 80,000 volumes, almost all of which are books of reference such as cannot be consulted elsewhere except by ownership or in technical libraries. The department of bibliography is very complete, and the collection of volumes in the history, science and theory of music has been pronounced by Theodore Thomas and Mr. Walter Damrosch one of the finest in the country. Open and free to visitors from 10 A. M. to 9 P. M. North State street horse car or North Clark street cable car to Oak street.

CHRISTIAN ORGANIZATIONS.

Bible Institute.—228-232 La Salle avenue. Women's department 80 West Pearson street. North Clark street cable to Chicago avenue, west one block. This institute was organized by Dwight L. Moody, its object being to prepare men and women for evangelical work. There is an average of 100 men and 50 women students.

Central Women's Christian Temperance Union.—Office 161 La Salle street (†). Conducts several missions, dispensaries, nurseries, industrial schools, etc.

National Women's Christian Temperance Union.—Main office, Temperance Temple, La Salle, corner Monroe streets (†).

Young Men's Christian Associations.—General offices, Board of Managers and Control rooms, 148 Madison street (†). There are eight branches with commodious rooms in the city and suburbs.

Young Women's Christian Associations.—243 Wabash avenue (†). Conducts also a boarding house for young women.

ART GALLERIES AND PRIVATE COLLECTIONS.

Interest in the fine arts has been rapidly increasing in Chicago during the past decade, and finds a fitting climax for this generation, at least, in the magnificent building for the Art Institute now being erected on the lake front—between Jackson and Monroe streets, with main entrance at the foot of Adams street. (†) The building will be a parallelogram, of Bedford limestone, with granite base extending to the water table. It will have a frontage of 320 feet on Michigan avenue; main depth 175 feet with projections making an arc 208 feet in depth. The "Permanent Art Building," as the new structure is called, will cost \$600,000, of which \$275,000 is contributed by The Art Institute of Chicago, which will occupy the new building; \$200,000 by the World's Columbian Exposition, and the remainder by private subscription and loan. The building will be used during the Exposition for the meetings of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the Exposition, and afterward turned over to the Art Institute. Wabash avenue cable cars run one block west; Adams street cars pass main entrance. Illinois Central Railroad, Van Buren street station is a short block east from main entrance.

Art Institute of Chicago and Art Museum.—Michigan avenue and Van Buren street. Considered the finest example of modern architecture in Chicago, and contains the finest collection of paintings and casts west of the Alleghenies. Admission free Saturdays and from 1 to 5 o'clock Sundays. Admission others days, 25 cents. Wabash avenue cable cars run one block west. (This building will be occupied by the Chicago Club when the Art Institute moves to the Permanent Art Building mentioned above; probably in the spring of 1894.)

Chicago Society of Artists.—Atheneum Building, 16 to 26 Van Buren street, (†) seventh floor. Wabash avenue cable cars.

Union League Art Association.—Union League Club-house Jackson street, opposite Post-office (†). Object, perfecting collection in the club-house. Admission by invitation.

Vincennes Gallery of Fine Arts.—3841 Vincennes avenue. Free admission. Green car on Wabash avenue cable line to 38th street. East three blocks. Elevated Railroad to 41st and Prairie avenue.

The finest private collections are those of Charles T. Yerkes, 3201 Michigan avenue; Potter Palmer, Lake

Shore Drive, North Side; J. W. Ellsworth, Union League Club, and Charles L. Hutchinson, 2709 Prairie avenue.

CHURCHES.

There are so many churches in Chicago that it would be impossible in a compact guide to give the names and locations of more than a few, conspicuous either by their architectural beauty, the fame of their pastors, or choirs.

Central Church. (Independent.)—Pastor, Prof. David Swing, Central Music Hall, State and Randolph streets. (†)

People's Church.—(Independent.)—Pastor, Dr. H. W. Thomas, McVickers' Theatre, Madison near State street (†).

Second Presbyterian.—Pastor, Rev. Simon J. MacPherson, Michigan Boulevard and 20th street. Wabash avenue cable car to 20th street. East one block.

Westminster Presbyterian.—Pastor, F. J. Brobst, Peoria and Jackson streets. Adams street car to Peoria. South one block to Jackson.

Plymouth Congregational.—Pastor, F. W. Gunsaulus, Michigan Boulevard, near 26th street. Green cars on Wabash avenue cable line to 26th street, West one block to Michigan Boulevard.

Sinai Congregation.—Rabbi, E. G. Hirsh, Indiana avenue and 21st street. Green cars on Wabash avenue cable line.

First Presbyterian.—Pastor, Dr. John H. Barrows, Indiana and 31st street. Green car on Wabash avenue cable line.

First Baptist.—Pastor, Dr. P. S. Henson, South Park avenue and 31st street. Wabash avenue cable car to 31st street, west in block.

Union Park Congregational.—Pastor, Dr. F. A. Noble, Washington Boulevard, corner Ashland Boulevard. Madison street cable car to Ashland Boulevard. North one block.

Protestant Episcopal Cathedral.—Pastor, Rt. Rev. William F. McLaren, Washington Boulevard and Peoria street. Madison street cable cars to Peoria street. North one block.

Grace Episcopal.—Pastor, Dr. Winton Locke, 1445 Wabash avenue. Wabash avenue cable car.

Christ's Reformed Episcopal.—Pastor, Rt. Rev. Charles E. Cheney, Michigan Boulevard and 24th street. Wabash avenue cable car to Michigan and 22d street. South two blocks.

St. Paul's Episcopal.—Pastor, Rev. Samuel Fallons, Adams street and Winchester avenue. Adams street horse car.

First United Presbyterian.—Pastor, Dr. W. T. Meloy, Monroe and Paulina streets. Madison street cable car to Paulina. South one block.

Fourth Presbyterian.—Pastor, Dr. M. W. Stryker, Rush and Superior street. State street horse car on Carrette line.

All Souls. (Unitarian.)—Pastor, Jenkin Lloyd Jones, Oakwood Boulevard and Langley avenue. Wabash avenue car to Oakwood Boulevard. West one block.

St. James. (Episcopal.)—Pastor, (pulpit vacant.) Cass and Huron streets. North State street cars to Huron. East one block.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

It is estimated by those most actively engaged in organized charity work in Chicago that voluntary money gifts for public institutions amount to fully \$3,000,000 annually. This does not include hospitals or reformatory institutions. The most important institutions—those that strangers to Chicago might be interested in visiting—are enumerated on next page.

American Educational Aid Society.—Secures homes for children. Nursery, 238 66th street. Illinois Central R. R. to 68th Street Station. Dormitory for older children, Aurora, Illinois. Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. City office, 232 La Salle street(†), Room 41.

Cook County Insane Asylum.—Dunning, Illinois. Chicago & Northwestern Railroad.

Cook County Poor House.—Dunning, Illinois. Chicago & Northwestern Railroad.

Foundling's Home.—114 S. Wood street.

German Old People's Home.—Harlem, Illinois. Wisconsin Central Railroad.

Holy Family Orphan Asylum.—Holt and Division streets. Noble street car on Madison street cable line to Noble and Division streets. West two blocks.

Home for Crippled Children.—91 Heine street. West North avenue car on North Clark street cable line.

Homes for the Aged.—29 and 31 East 25th street. Wabash avenue cable cars to 25th and Cottage Grove avenue, West Harrison street, corner Throop; West Harrison street car at Washington street and Michigan avenue. Sheffield avenue, corner Fullerton avenue. Fullerton avenue car on North Clark street cable line.

Illinois Industrial School for Girls.—(Reformatory.) South Evanston Illinois. Chicago & Northwestern R. R. or Chicago, Milwaukee & St Paul R. R.

Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys.—Glenwood Park, Illinois. Chicago & Eastern Illinois Railroad.

Illinois Masonic Orphans' Home.—447 Carroll avenue. West Lake street car at State and Lake to Sheldon street North two blocks.

Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home.—(Government institution.) Normal, Illinois. Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific R. R.

Illinois Women's Soldiers' Home.—1408 Wabash avenue. Wabash avenue cable car.

Old People's Home.—Indiana avenue, corner 39th street. Green car on Wabash avenue cable line.

St. Joseph's Home for the Friendless.—Industrial school for boys and girls and for the deaf.) 409 South May street. West 12th street car above Washington and State streets to May street. One block north.

St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum.—35th street, corner Lake avenue. Illinois Central R. R. to 36th street. East one block to Lake Avenue.

CEMETERIES.

Rosehill, Oakwoods and Graceland are the three resting places of Chicago's Protestant dead which art and nature have combined to make most worthy a visit by strangers. In these cemeteries many of the early settlers repose, and the monuments and tombstones bear names most associated in the past with Chicago's greatness.

Aushe Maariv.—North Clark and Belmont avenues. Evanston Division, Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R., or North Clark street cable car.

Austro-Hungarian.—Waldheim, ten miles from City Hall. Northern Pacific R. R.

Beth Hamedrash.—67th street and Cottage Grove avenue. Wabash avenue cable, or Illinois Central R. R. to 67th street station.

B'nai Abraham.—Waldheim. (See Austro-Hungarian Cemetery.)

Calvary.—Near South Evanston, ten miles north of City Hall. Chicago & Northwestern R. R., or Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R.

Concordia.

Forest Home.

Adjoining cemeteries on the banks of the Desplaines River, nine miles west of City Hall. Northern Pacific R. R.

German Lutheran.—North Clark street, corner Graceland avenue. North Clark street cable car.

Graceland.—Beuna Park, five miles north of City Hall. The largest and most beautiful cemetery in Chicago. Evanston Division, Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R.

Mount Greenwood.—Morgan Park, fourteen miles south of City Hall. Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific R. R.

Mount Olive.—(Scandinavian.) Dunning, nine miles west of City Hall. Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R.

Oakwoods.—67th street and Cottage Grove avenue. Illinois Central R. R. to 67th street station, or Wabash avenue cable car.

Rosehill.—Rosehill Station, seven miles northeast of City Hall. Milwaukee Division, Chicago & Northwestern Railroad.

St. Boniface.—North Clark street, corner Lawrence avenue. (German Roman Catholic.) North Clark street cable car.

Waldheim.—Waldheim, ten miles west of City Hall. Northern Pacific Railroad.

GENTLEMEN'S CLUBS.

The numerous dining, musical and social clubs in the World's Fair city are not enumerated, as the visitor will be interested only in those having houses open to visitors by agreement with their home clubs for an exchange of courtesies or by special invitation.

Argo Club.—Lake Michigan end of Illinois Central Pier. Difficult of access except by carriage. The club house is built on the end of the pier so as to secure for members the cool lake breezes of a summer afternoon. The house is in the form of a boat. In the hull are the kitchens, store-rooms and servants' quarters. The main saloon is on the first deck; the state-rooms for lodging members on the second deck, and the promenade on the hurricane deck. Membership is confined to about 100 wealthy and socially prominent Chicagoans.

Ashland Club.—575 Washington Boulevard. The leading social organization on the west side. The house contains besides the rooms usual to clubs, a banquet hall large enough for 200 persons; an assembly hall 60 x 80 feet and bowling alleys. The club house cost \$85,000. Madison street cable cars to Page street north to Washington Boulevard.

Calumet Club.—Michigan Boulevard and 20th street. In addition to the usual club features, the Calumet aims to preserve the early history of the city and State. Wabash avenue cable to 20th street, east to Michigan Boulevard.

Chicago Club.—Monroe street, between State street and Wabash avenue (†) opposite ladies' entrance to Palmer House. The membership includes most of Chicago's millionaires and leading professional men.

Chicago Electric Club.—103 Adams street (†). Membership confined almost exclusively to electricians, engineers and scientific men.

Church Club.—103 Adams street (†). Membership limited to clergy and laity of the Episcopal church.

Douglas Club.—3518 Ellis avenue. Wabash avenue cable to 35th street, east one block to Ellis avenue, or Illinois Central R. R. to 36th street, west two blocks to Ellis avenue.

Germania Männerchor.—North Clark, corner Germania Place. Membership mostly Germans. Musi-

cal entertainments are a conspicuous feature of this club. North Clark street cable car to Germania Place.

Hyde Park Club.—Washington avenue and 51st street. Illinois Central R. R. to 50th street station, west one block to Washington avenue.

Illinois Club.—154 Ashland Boulevard. Madison street cable car to Ashland Boulevard.

Indiana Club.—3349 Indiana avenue. Green car on Wabash avenue cable line.

Irish-American Club.—40 Dearborn street (†). Irish birth or ancestry is necessary for membership.

Iroquois Club.—110 Monroe street. Columbia Theatre Building (†). The leading Democratic club of Chicago.

Kenwood Club.—Lake avenue and 47th street. Illinois Central R. R. to 47th street station, east one block to Lake avenue.

Lakeside Club.—Indiana avenue, between 31st and 32d streets. Green car on Wabash avenue cable line.

La Salle Club.—542 west Monroe street. A leading Republican organization. Madison street cable car to Laflin street, south one block.

Lincoln Club.—531 West Adams street. A thriving Republican organization. Adams street horse car.

Marquette Club.—Dearborn avenue and Maple street. A Republican social organization. North Clark street cable car to Maple street, east one block to Dearborn avenue.

Oakland Club.—Ellis and Oakland avenue. Illinois Central R. R. to Oakland station, west two blocks to Ellis avenue.

Press Club of Chicago.—131 Clark street (†). Membership confined to men actively engaged in journalism.

Sheridan Club.—Michigan Boulevard and 41st street. Social, dramatic and musical. Elevated R. R. to Michigan Boulevard Station.

Standard Club.—Michigan Boulevard and 24th street. The leading Hebrew club of Chicago. Wabash avenue cable car to 22d street and Michigan Boulevard. South two blocks.

Umni Club.—Washington Place and Dearborn avenue. North Clark street cable car to Washington Place, east one block.

Union League Club.—Jackson street and Fourth avenue (†) opposite Post Office. The foremost commercial and professional club in Chicago. While not an avowedly Republican organization as are clubs of the same name in other cities the Union League was incorporated with the object of encouraging and promoting unconditional loyalty to the Federal Government. The club has in addition to the most elaborate banquet hall, café and usual club rooms, a valuable art collection and splendid library. Its location in the heart of the city has caused it to become the favorite lunching place for the leading business men.

University Club.—Dearborn street and Calhoun Place (†) between Washington and Madison streets. Membership limited to college graduates.

Washington Park Club.—South Park avenue and 61st street. The club owns and manages the finest race track in the West, its annual meetings, particularly the "American Derby" being among the most important turf events of the country. The club house has the café, banquet-room and private dining-rooms usual to the best organizations and its membership includes the leading business men of Chicago. Illinois Central R. R. to South Park Station or Wabash avenue cable cars to 61st street.

NEWSPAPER OFFICES.

There are 24 daily papers published in Chicago. Visitors will be impressed by their high character and great size; particularly the Sunday issues. The location of publication offices and their politics are given below. As most of the more important offices are in the boundaries indicated by the (†) in this guide or within a block thereof the (†) is omitted on those within the boundary.

Abend Post.—Daily, morning. German. Independent in politics. 203 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

Arbeiter Zeitung.—Daily, morning. German. Socialistic. 274 West Twelfth street. Cars at corner of State and Washington streets.

Mail.—Daily, evening. Independent in politics. 120 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

Globe.—Daily and Sunday, morning. Democratic. 118 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

The Daily National Hotel Reporter.—Daily, morning. Prints complete list of arrivals at hotels. No. 7 Monroe street.

The Chicago News.—Daily, evening. Independent. 123 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

The Chicago News-Record.—Daily, morning. Independent. 123 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

Evening Journal.—Daily, evening. Republican. 161 Dearborn street.

Freie Presse.—Daily, morning. German. Republican. 90, 94 Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

Herald.—Daily and Sunday, morning. Democratic. 154, 156, 158 Washington street, near La Salle. The *Herald* occupies its own building, which is considered the model newspaper office of the United States. Visitors are welcomed.

Illinois Staats Zeitung.—Daily, morning. Republican. Corner Washington street and Fifth avenue, one block west of (†) boundary.

Inter-Ocean.—Daily and Sunday, morning. Republican. N. E. corner Madison and Dearborn sts.

Post.—Daily, evening. Democratic. 164, 166 Washington street.

The Skandinavian.—Daily and Sunday, morning. Republican. 183, 185, 187 N. Peoria street. Milwaukee ave. cable cars at corner La Salle and Madison sts. to Peoria street.

Times.—Daily and Sunday, morning. Democratic. Corner Washington street and Fifth avenue. One block west of (†) boundary.

Tribune.—Daily and Sunday, morning.—S. E. cor. Madison and Dearborn streets.

FORT DEARBORN.

The site of Fort Dearborn, the pioneer settlement of Chicago, was at the corner of Michigan Boulevard and South Water street, extending across what is now Water street to the very bank of the Chicago river. The land is now occupied by a large mercantile establishment, a marble slab in the wall of the north front of the building telling of the historical importance of the spot. In 1673 Louis Joliet, agent of the Governor of New France (Louisiana), accompanied by Father Jacques Marquette, a Jesuit priest, and a small band of explorers, encamped at Chicago Portage—near the site of Fort Dearborn. La Salle followed in 1678, but there is no record of a permanent settler until 1779, when a fugitive slave, named Point De Sable, from Louisiana, built a hut and engaged in the life of a trapper. Shortly after the purchase of Louisiana by the

United States, Congress decided to build a fort on Lake Michigan, and six square miles of territory having been ceded by the Indians at the mouth of the Chicago river, that point was selected for the new outpost. Fort Dearborn was completed in 1804, and the small garrison undertook to maintain itself with several thousand unfriendly Indians in the surrounding country. During the war of 1812 British emissaries aroused the Indians to open acts of hostility against the garrison of the fort and the settlers who had built quite a little village around it. On the morning of August 15, 1812, it having been decided to evacuate the fort and leave the village to the Indians, the little garrison and settlers marched out, proceeding south along what is now the Lake front of Chicago. At a point that is now the foot of Eighteenth street it became apparent that the Indians were determined to prevent the escape of the soldiers and settlers. The running fight that ensued continued until the remnant of the Americans reached the place that is now the foot of Forty-third street. By this time the Americans had all been killed but twenty-eight, and a capitulation was effected by which the lives of the prisoners were to be spared. There is no exact data regarding how many lives were sacrificed in this massacre, but the most reliable historians place the number at between sixty and seventy, including women and children. All but two of the women in the evacuating party were slaughtered. The family of John Kinzie, one of the first settlers remained in the village, and though Kinzie joined the soldiers in fighting the Indians, the latter held him in such high esteem that his wife and children were not molested. The prisoners were all finally returned to freedom by the Indians. At the foot of Eighteenth street stands an old tree surrounded by an iron railing. It is here that most of the women and children were killed and that the hardest fighting occurred.

ARMORIES OF ILLINOIS NATIONAL GUARD.

First Regiment.—(Infantry.) Michigan Boulevard and 16th street. Enrolment, 650 men. Wabash avenue cable car to 16th street, one block east to Michigan Boulevard.

Battery D, First Artillery.—Michigan Boulevard, near Adams. (†). Equipment, four twelve-pound Napoleons and four rapid-firing Gatlings.

Second Regiment.—(Infantry.) Washington Boulevard and Curtis street. Enrolment, 950 men. Madison street cable car to Curtis street, one block north to Washington Boulevard.

Cavalry Troop, A.—135 Michigan Boulevard (†). Enrolment, 63 men.

Chicago Hussars.—Armory and club house in process of construction, 35th street, near Cottage Grove avenue. Enrolment, 104 men. The Hussars have been appointed by the Director General of the Exposition as the special guard of honor for himself and the National Commission during the World's Fair. Wabash avenue cable car to 35th street.

UNION STOCK YARDS.

South Halstead street, five and one-half miles southwest of City Hall. The stock yards and combined slaughter and packing houses for the almost incomprehensibly large provision trade of Chicago were organized in 1865, and keeping pace in growth with the trade, now embrace 400 acres of land. Within the enclosure there are 150 miles of railroad tracks; 20 miles of streets; ditto of water troughs and 50 miles of feeding troughs. The pens provide accommodations for 30,000 cattle, 200,000 hogs, 30,000 sheep and 4000 horses. The magnitude of the packing industry

and its importance to Chicago may best be understood by statistics for 1891. Capital invested (estimated), \$37,000,000; value of live stock received, \$39,434,777; hands employed, 25,000; wages paid, \$15,000,000; value of product, \$150,000,000. Every railroad running into Chicago is connected with the stock yards by a belt line. Each morning the entire yard is devoted to the receipt and inspection of live stock brought in during the night by the trains from the South and West. In the afternoon the day's product of the packing houses is loaded in trains for the East; the pens and houses are thoroughly and systematically cleansed, and by a little after midnight all is again ready for receiving more live stock. The business of packing has now been so perfected that almost every portion of an animal is applied to some commercial use. A leading packer stated recently that he had learned by chemical experiments to utilize so much material he had before counted as waste and paid for hauling away that it made a difference in his profits in one year of over \$1,000,000. In 1891, there were slaughtered and packed 2,184,095 cattle, 157,052 calves 5,638,291 hogs and 1,465,332 sheep. There is an average of nearly 2000 sight-seers a day at the stock yards, besides many regular visitors who daily drink blood, while warm from the animal, as a cure for consumption. Admission is free and guides may be engaged at the gates who, for twenty-five cents, will conduct the visitor to and explain all points of interest. There are many routes to the stock yards, but the most convenient from the (†) district in this GUIDE are the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific R. R., or State street cable car to 35th street, asking the conductor for a transfer to the yards.

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION.

Postoffice.—The U. S. Postoffice is in the block bounded by Adams, Dearborn, Clark and Jackson streets (†). Though the construction of this great building was begun after the fire of 1871, and over \$5,000,000 was expended on it, there is immediate need of a new building. The present postoffice was poorly planned and badly constructed. The building has settled and is deemed unsafe by many, though engineers and architects declare it is not in danger of collapse. The United States Custom House, Internal Revenue office, Sub-Treasury, Marshal's Office and Pension Office are located in the Postoffice building.

City Hall and County Court House.—(†).—These two great structures occupy the block bounded on the North by Randolph street, East by Clark street, West by La Salle street and South by Washington street. All the city and county offices are located here, including the court rooms. The buildings adjoin and communicate, and appear as one great edifice. Together they have cost the citizens of Chicago and Cook county \$4,500,000.

Hack and Cab Rates.—(Two horse vehicles.) One or two passengers from any railroad station to another, \$1.00; ditto one mile or less, \$1.00; ditto over one and less than two miles \$1.50; ditto any distance exceeding two miles \$2.00; for each additional passenger of the same party, 50 cents. For any two horse hack or cab hired by the hour: For the first hour \$2.00; each additional hour or part thereof, \$1.00. For trunk and ordinary hand baggage no charge is allowed. **Hansom and Cab Rates.**—(One horse vehicles.) For one or two passengers per mile or part thereof, 25 cents. By the hour; First hour, 75 cents; each quarter hour after first hour, 20 cents. While the above rates are established by law it will be prudent for visitors to make a bargain with the driver before entering the vehicle.

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